



TEACHING ORAL FLUENCY IN ACADEMIC SETTINGS AT AMU: AN ACTIVITY BASED APPROACH



THESIS

**UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF
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**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
ALIGARH MUSLIM UNIVERSITY
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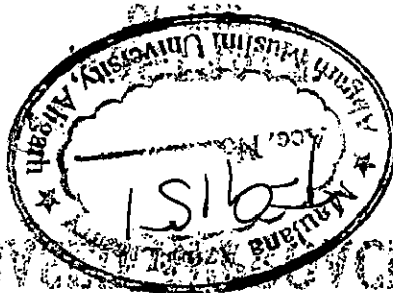
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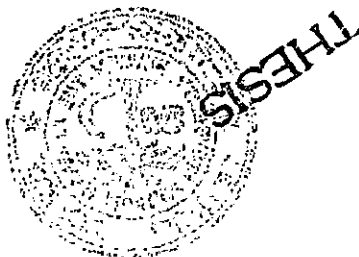
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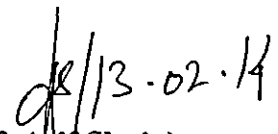


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Certificate

This is to certify that **Ms. Darakhshan Zafar**, bearing Enrolment no. GA-4672, in the Department of English of this University has fulfilled the requirements prescribed for the Ph.D. degree of the Aligarh Muslim University.

The thesis entitled, “**Teaching Oral Fluency in Academic Settings at AMU: An Activity Based Approach**” has been carried out under my supervision. I find it suitable for submission for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English (ELT).

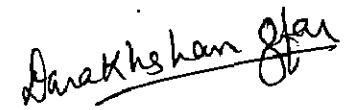

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Supervisor

THESIS

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I, **Darakhshan Zafar**, hereby declare that I have personally carried out the work presented in the thesis entitled, **"Teaching Oral Fluency in Academic Settings: An Activity Based Approach"**. It is an independent and original piece of research work. No part of the thesis has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma prior to this date. I consider myself solely responsible for any error, if found, in this thesis.

Date: 13.02.14



Darakhshan Zafar

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(Darakhshan Zafar)

List of Abbreviations

AMU	Aligarh Muslim University
CANCODE	Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English
CE	Compulsory English
CLL	Community Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as Foreign Language
ESL	English as Second Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LSRW	Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing
RP	Received Pronunciation
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
TBLT	Task Based Language Teaching
TPR	Total Physical Response
UG	Undergraduate

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an introduction to the topic of the thesis. It contains the aim, scope and method adopted in this research. It concludes with an outline of the present study.

1.1 Aim and Scope

This research aims at investigating the present status of oral fluency in academic settings of undergraduate (UG) students at Aligarh Muslim University (AMU) leading to some important suggestions for teaching oral fluency with a view to improve the existing situations with the help of activity based approach. AMU accommodates a heterogeneous group of students in its classrooms. The word ‘heterogeneous’ stands for differences in students’ social, cultural, economical and educational backgrounds. At AMU, there are host of students with good aptitude for speaking, but there is a great number of those who are incapable of making their English speech intelligible to the audience. It has been found that many of them have difficulty in interacting professionally and socially with their peers and teachers in various academic contexts. Either they prefer to remain silent when asked to respond or they reply only briefly (may be in one word utterance or so). It has also been observed that English speech of most of the undergraduate students at AMU is marked by reluctance, lack of cohesion and coherence, lacking concentration and focus on the topic of discussion. The present study is intended to investigate this area because it is observed that students with poor fluency in English are diffident, especially when they are exposed to the professional world. Every time they face problem of communication breakdown. They avoid

speaking English and consequently experience social isolation among native speakers, find limited opportunities for further studies and face employment difficulties. The heightened awareness of using the target language in academics can build confidence among learners and improve their oral skills resulting in enhancement of their academic performance as well.

This research has targeted the undergraduate students who are studying English as a compulsory subject in the faculties of Science, Social Science, Commerce and Arts at AMU. The Department of English has introduced useful study materials for Compulsory English (CE) course. The concerned authorities have also been revising the syllabus time and again to increase its efficacy. However, after completing the course, most of the undergraduates are unable to speak English fluently. They become completely incompetent in the outside world.

Keeping in view the above mentioned aspect, an attempt has been made to analyze the problems that make these students non-fluent speakers of English and subsequently, various strategies and graded activities are suggested for improving their fluency.

Students at undergraduate level are fully aware of the importance of English in the present scenario. English is taught at AMU as a second language. Here it has been introduced at the primary level and is taught as a compulsory subject up to the undergraduate level. However, even after graduation, the students not only find it difficult to speak English fluently, but also they are unintelligible to their non-native and native listeners. There are many factors that contribute towards this situation. As it is not possible to accommodate all those aspects in this thesis, hence this research aims to study the following areas precisely:

- a) To find out and analyze

- Students' perception of their own expressive ability.
 - Reasons for their being non fluent speakers of English which leads to the study of affective variables (motivational and anxiety level of the students) and the nature of difficulty they face during speaking English.
 - Kinds of strategies they adopt to avoid communication breakdown, or to convey their message successfully.
 - Practices they adopt to improve their oral proficiency.
- b) On the basis of above analyses, some strategies would be suggested and also graded activities would be designed to improve the oral fluency of the UG students of AMU.

This study can build up confidence among learners and hence, improve their oral skill while they are pursuing their academics. It is expected that this research would be useful for the scholars, teachers and course designers/ material producers of English in India.

1.2 Method Adopted

In order to achieve the goals of this research, a questionnaire is developed to be filled up by the sample of this study. The statistical package SPSS version 16.0 is used to analyze the obtained data. The findings are presented in tabular as well as graphical mode. The data is then interpreted on the basis of the findings. Based on the interpretations of the obtained result, various graded activities are designed and some strategies are suggested for developing fluency in speaking.

1.3 Plan of Study

Chapter 1 forms the introduction of the thesis highlighting the aim and scope of this research and also stating the method adopted in this research.

Chapter 2 discusses the general concept of fluency, the place of fluency in various teaching methods, the models for speaking, definitions and approaches to oral fluency, measures of fluency which include discussion about non verbal aspects, intonation and temporal variables, factors affecting fluency and the challenges involved in making fluent English speech. It also includes a brief review of literature of the area under study.

Chapter 3 forms the survey designed for the proposition and discusses the factors that are concerned with non-fluent English speech. For this purpose, students' questionnaire has been used to conduct the survey. The survey is divided into five sections in the following manner:

- The first part seeks the information about the background of the respondents.
- The second section tries to find out students' ability in various skills of the language and their opinion about the syllabus of compulsory English course.
- Section three deals with questions that help to indentify the motivation for the students from the two major sources: situations and fraternities. It also investigates whether the motivation is integrative or instrumental for the students.
- The fourth section analyzes the anxiety level of the respondents and their problems while speaking.
- The last section tries to reveal the strategies that respondents use while speaking English and the practices they adopt to improve their oral fluency.

Chapter 4 deals with the strategies to develop oral fluency and it includes the following sections:

- a) Section one highlights teaching theoretical perspectives of phonetics which includes a detailed study of phonetics. According to McCarthy (1991), “Good intonation will have a washback effect on articulation in terms of reduced and altered articulation of individual phonemes” (p.89). Phonetics is the tool that aids in building the hierarchical structure of linguistic units.
- b) Section two describes teaching of phonological processes, highlighting the various processes that are the marked feature of the connected speech.
- c) Section three considers the effective use of Community Language Learning and Total Physical Response teaching methods in the classroom to develop fluency. This section explains how these methods can be beneficial in improving oral fluency of AMU students.
- d) Section four deals with the teaching of the artistic use of fillers to ESL students. It aims at showing how the use of fillers can help students to improve their proficiency in speaking.
- e) Section five introduces formulaic expressions for various speech acts on the basis of the degree of formality. This part explains how certain fixed expressions for various situations can motivate students to speak English confidently.
- f) Section six considers the point that the vocabulary building is another area that is considered to be very important in order to make one a good speaker.
- g) The last section discusses the role of audience in developing oral fluency. It reflects the influence of audience on its speakers.

Chapter 5 is concerned with the designing of activities and includes discussion on the definitions and characteristics of a task in a communicative environment, components of a task, kinds of task and significance of planning a task during its implementation. Further, the importance of grading the task has also been discussed, which is followed by designing guided and free activities which are graded for various levels. These activities are proposed in the following manner:

- Guided Activities
 - a) At the beginner's level
 - b) At the intermediate level
 - c) At the advanced level
- Free Activities
 - a) At the beginner's level
 - b) At the intermediate level
 - c) At the advanced level

Chapter 6 offers the conclusion, revealing the final result, implications of the findings and limitation of the study. It highlights the suggestions for future research in this area. The study concludes with a positive note on the possibilities of improving the oral fluency of the undergraduate students learning English at AMU. Equipped with the ability to face the communication breakdown and with a renewed confidence in themselves, these students would then be able to make higher academic decisions and use the opportunities around for their academic growth and career improvement.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Framework for Oral Fluency

2.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to give definitions and approaches towards oral fluency. It discusses the place of fluency in various language teaching methods. It also throws light on the measures of fluency and the factors that affect its development. Furthermore, the challenges that are involved in making fluent English speech are also being highlighted. Later in this chapter, a brief review of the research in the area of fluency development has been presented.

2.2 An Overview on the Concept of Fluency

In an era where English language is being globalized, people are often judged by the way they speak the language. Therefore, poor speakers are tagged as incompetent and uneducated. Hence, these speakers experience social isolation among the natives or the good speakers of English, face employment difficulties and find very limited opportunities for higher studies. People should not only know the language well, but must know how to use it communicatively also, in order to interact with the English speakers.

Singh (2005) says that for gaining basic command of the language, a teacher must:

- favour such teaching programme that meets the L₂ learners' specific needs.
- Use such teaching activities which the learners think are useful for them.
- Follow such approach in teaching that has flexibility. (p. 18)

Further, the author states that if teaching exists in a communicative learning context then there should be a sharing of responsibilities not only between a teacher and

students, but also among students. According to Gefen (1989a), “if communication is the aim of teaching, then communication must be the means of learning” (as cited in Singh, 2005, p. 26).

It is considered that if students get the opportunity to develop fluency in the English speech while they are pursuing their academics, it would really be a very beneficial effort for them from various perspectives.

2.3 Place of Fluency in Language Teaching Methods

The emphasis on fluency has kept on changing with the emergence of different teaching methods over the years. A brief study of various teaching methods that has focussed on the role of fluency in language learning is given below.

In Grammar–Translation method accuracy in the language use is much focused, as students are asked to show a “high standards in translation” (Richards and Rogers, 1986, p. 4). During this era, speaking and listening are hardly given any attention.

In Direct method, both speaking and listening are given due importance. Accuracy in pronunciation and grammar is much emphasised and the use of mother tongue is avoided.

The aim of Situational Language Teaching method is to begin the teaching with the spoken language. Here, the target language remains the medium of instruction. Richards and Rogers (1986) have cited Pittman (1963) as:

Our principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest amount of practice in English speech to the pupil. (p. 35)

Hence, structure has to be practiced orally in the context of different situations.

In the Audio-lingual method, all the four skills of the language, i.e., Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW) are emphasized. Here oral skill is given much attention. It is based on structuralism which believes that "...medium of language is oral" (Richards and Rogers, 1986, p.49). The focus on speaking is linked to accuracy in speech here because proponents of this method think that "Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes" (p.51). Therefore, drills and rote- memorization are thought to be quite helpful in learning the target language.

In late 1960s, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was introduced. This method gives importance to the communicative competence where meaning, unlike the structure is the focus of learning and aims at effective communication. This method is flexible in its approach to teaching, because intelligible pronunciation is sought and any approach which helps the learners is accepted. In this method, teaching language aims at developing fluency in the target language.

Thus, it can be said that fluency with flexible approach in language learning plays an important role here. It is a learner centred approach where teachers help the learners in every possible way that encourages them to use language. It can also be concluded from the above discussions that language learning is least pressurized in CLT.

2.4 Definitions and Approaches to Oral Fluency:

Carroll (1968) describes four types of fluency (as cited in Riggensbach, 2000, p.16):

- a) Word fluency: The ability to recall words with given phonetic-orthographic characteristics.
- b) Ideational fluency: The ability to call up names or ideas appropriate for given semantic characteristics.

- c) Expressional fluency: The ability to compose appropriate sentences for given grammatical requirements rapidly.
- d) Oral speaking fluency: The ability to use integrated language skills which depends on the psycholinguistic mechanisms.

According to Krashen, fluency and accuracy are the two aspects of language learning. (as cited in Richards and Rodgers 1986). Fluency is the result of language acquisition and acquisition is an unconscious process which needs a lot of exposure. In the words of Krashen “the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly but it emerges independently at time when acquirer has built linguistic competence by understanding it” (as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p.132). It is difficult for second language learners to speak well and with ease because they do not get exposure to communicate in the target language outside the classroom.

Faerch, Haastrup, and Philipson define fluency as “the speaker’s ability to make use of whatever linguistic and pragmatic competence they have” (as cited in Hedge, 1993, p.275). They have discovered three types of fluency which are mentioned below:

- Semantic fluency: Connecting together propositions and speech acts.
- Lexical-syntactic fluency: Connecting together syntactic constituents and words.
- Articulatory fluency: Connecting together speech and segments.

(p. 275)

Defining spontaneous speech, Abercrombie (1965) says that it “should be illetrate-literally” (p. 6). He finds that the transcripts of spontaneous conversation are most of the time “unintelligible, illogical, ungrammatical, unorganized and repetitious” (p. 6).

Further, he discusses some of the features of a genuine conversation which are listed below:

- A natural conversation shows variation in tempo.
- Pauses and silence have meanings and they maintain the conversation without words also.
- Stammers, repetitions and errors of articulation form the conversation rules.
- Meaningless words and phrases also occur in conversation. They are referred as “silence fillers” (p. 9), which sometimes signals intimacy between the speakers.

Keeping in mind the above mentioned characteristics of a spontaneous speech, Abercrombie (1965) suggests that a language teacher should not teach the spoken language like a spoken prose which is highly structured.

Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) has described fluency as “the features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions” (p. 108). They also point out that ESL/EFL fluency characterizes students’ level of communicative proficiency besides the following abilities to:

- Produce written/spoken language with ease.
- Speak with a good, but not necessarily perfect command of intonation.
- Communicate ideas effectively.
- Produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication.

(Richard et al. ,1985, p. 108-109)

Keeping in view the linguistic discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence, Fillmore (2000) considers four abilities that should be included under the term fluency:

- Ability to talk at length with few pauses.
- Ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and semantically dense sentences.
- Ability to have appropriate things to say in wide range of contexts.
- Ability to be creative and imaginative in language use.

(p. 51)

Brumfit (2000) says that the above mentioned abilities relate to four basic set of abilities psychomotor, affective, cognitive and aesthetic. Further, Fillmore (2000) stresses on the mastery of some fixed expressions by an L₂ speaker in order to be fluent. He states that these expressions cannot be used efficiently if speakers are mere masters of grammar and vocabulary. Their appropriate use depends on the context and situations. He identifies fluency with “articulateness, volubility, eloquence, wit, garrulousness etc.” (p. 51). He goes on to explain that oral fluency depends on the following factors:

- Good command on the appropriate and accurate use of the vocabulary in different situations and in a culturally diverse world. One must also “have control of a number of processes for creating new expressions” (p. 53). Also, the ability to efficiently and appropriately use the “language’s special syntactic devices” (p. 55) plays a vital role. For example, the use of *respectively, simultaneously, though, etc.*
- Speech should be intelligible enough for the listeners to comprehend the speaker’s intention.
- The ability of speakers to associate linguistic forms with the cognitive, interactional and discourse schemata.

- The ability to use various styles and registers in different settings.

Brown (2003) has discussed an expanded view of fluency which includes:

1) communicative language tools which deals with the below mentioned components like-

- Paralinguistic features: Like facial expressions, head movements, hand gestures, eye movements and eye gaze.
- Kinesics features: These deal with the ways in which the body is used in communication, like distance, touching and posture. These features convey emotions without the help of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.
- Pragmatics: It includes the use of language in specific contexts and social situations.
- Grammar: Instead of teaching how to make complete sentence, learners should be taught to handle the spoken discourse.
- Pronunciation: It must include suprasegmental features and the reduced forms besides focusing on phonemes.
- Vocabulary: Students should know the semantic components of a word and how disparate words can have different meanings in various contexts.

(p. 3-4)

2) Communicative language choices: These are the choices within the circle of language tools which students select to meet the demands of a communicative situation. Widdowson (1978) distinguished between the two kinds of rule:

- a) Reference rules: Rules which build the students' competence in the language
i.e paralinguistic features, kinesics features, pragmatics, pronunciation,
grammar and vocabulary.
- b) Expression rules: These are the rules that govern the way students would
use the language.

(p. 13)

Thus, choices made while communicating in English are based on expression rules. Choices could be due to the differences in settings, social, sexual, psychological rules, register and style (Brown, 2003).

- 3) Communicative language strategies: These are the strategies that students use in order to make effective communication when they lack accuracy in the use of language. Six such strategies are the abilities:

- To use speed to their advantage.
- To use pauses and hesitations.
- To give appropriate feedback like gestures, facial expressions etc. to signal that whether the message is getting through or not.
- To self-monitor and repair competently the mistakes.
- To clarify effectively by using different communication strategies.
- To negotiate for meaning when necessary.

(p.7-8)

The style of speaking is determined by the audience in context, therefore, students must modify their speech accordingly. This is called "tailoring language" (Leaver, Ehrman, & Shekhtman, 2005, p. 172). Further, Brown (2003) defines fluency as "The ability to switch registers and styles and respond appropriately to different sexual,

psychological and social roles in various settings” (p. 6). Different ways of expressing a register must take into account the following three points:

- Forms of address
- Grammatical forms
- Word choice

According to Brown & Yule (1983), a language has different functions. Each function is used for different purpose and hence takes on different forms i.e. appropriate ‘styles’ for different functions, different registers and so on. They classified the functions of language into two broad terms:

- Transactional function: This helps one to transfer information in language.
- Interactional function: Social relationships are maintained through interactional function of language.

Hence, a good and fluent speaker has the power to dominate a range of abilities from “taking short turns in primarily interactive ‘chat’ to taking transactional turns” (p. 22).

They have also said that “when students attempt to reproduce model phrases and sentences in ‘conversation’ exercises, it seems reasonable that he should not be corrected if he produces partial sentences, incomplete phrases of the sort produced by native speakers” (p.21). Even native speakers use language “manipulatively, exploratorily to communicate with and make-up what they say as they go along” (p. 21).

According to Nation (1989), if learners are not corrected of their errors, they get fossilized. This fossilization of the faulty speech prevents the learners from improving fluency. Ebsworth (1998) says that speech which is full of inaccurate vocabulary,

syntax, or pronunciation is very difficult to comprehend. However, it is possible for the speaker to be halting but accurate.

Therefore, there should be fluency plus accuracy approach while developing fluency in the classroom, which requires a natural reaction while correcting the errors which is known as consciousness-raising (Rutherford 1987). This works as feedback from the instructor that reminds speakers of errors in a positive way.

Moreover, it is very important to inculcate the qualities of a good learner in students before teaching them about fluent communication. Khan (1998) says that research in second language learning suggests that good language learners use a variety of communicative strategies to improve their face to face communication. He claims that speaking strategies are one of the most important aspects in dealing with communication skills, as they improve learners' confidence and fluency. Various communication strategies are practiced by an active learner of ESL to avoid breakdown in communication. Some of these strategies are: circumlocution, paraphrasing, asking for help, semantic avoidance, etc.

Rubin (1975) suggests that good L₂ learners

- Are willing and accurate guesser.
- Have strong desire to communicate.
- Are uninhibited.
- Attends to form
- Practices –seeks out conversation
- Monitors own speech and the speech of others.
- Attends to meaning.

(as cited in Brown, 1987, p. 91 - 2)

Lennon (2000) states that the rate of articulation or other indicators of “dysfluency” (p. 25) should not be the criteria for assessing fluency of speakers, because these may have “communicative functions in discourse” (p.25). He further states that “temporal variables will vary according to discourse topic, situation, interlocutor, and so forth” (p. 25) for speaker. It is quite important to acquire the ability in language processing apart from the linguistic and pragmatic competence as it will help speakers to achieve proficiency in any language. To put the above discussion in a nutshell, Lennon defines fluency as “the rapid, smooth, accurate, lucid and efficient translation of thought or communicative intention into language under the temporal constraints of on-line processing” (p. 26). He has also included the term “perceived fluency” (p. 27) in the definition of fluency. It stands for the perception that a speaker has regarding his/her ability in planning the speech and production of the speech. Moreover, the high automatization of phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactical processing is important for a fluent speech. Less proficient speakers have a little command over these processes, because, they learn the language in a non-communicative environment. They try to maintain a high speech rate (as this is what they perceive fluency as) but fail to convey their message. They have the impression that they are fluent in their speech but in fact they are maintaining what Lennon termed as “false fluency” (p. 28). Talking about the bilingual and multilingual, he says that “cross-linguistic influence is the norm” (p. 30) for them, as they can easily access the lexis, phonology, and syntax of their L1. This results in code-switching, code-mixing and use of structures which are based on their L1, or the other language in which they are proficient to carry on the discourse. This may pave a platform for errors that are “interlingual or intralingual, covert or overt (Corder 1971), global or local (Burt and Kiparsky 1974), knowledge-based or processing-based” (p.30). Hence, they have a

tendency to make “errors of competence” (p. 30) which may make students the “fossilized learners” (p. 30). The author says that these learners make use of the dialect of an interlanguage which is performed fluently. He further discusses the speech production model as proposed by Levelt (1989) for monolinguals and as modified by De Bot for bilinguals and multilinguals. The author describes three stages of production as discussed below:

- Conceptualization
- Formulation
- Articulation

Conceptualization: Here the speakers build their goal and look for those informations that have some relevance with regards to the goal. Conceptualization takes into account the macro as well as the micro planning, where former focuses on the goal while the latter selects and orders the message to accomplish the goal.

Formulation: It changes the conceptualized message into a “speech plan” (Yuan and Ellis, 2005, p. 172) and this is done by recognizing the linguistic knowledge available in the mental lexicon which matches with the conceptualized message. The “phonetic plan” (p.172) is the outcome from the formulator.

Articulator: Here the phonetic plan is executed which results in the production of speech.

The model for speech proposed by Levelt (1989) was meant for the production of speech in L1 (as cited in Yuan and Ellis, 2005). The model by De Bot adapted Levelt’s model for speech production in L2 (as cited in Yuan and Ellis, 2005). As mentioned by Yuan and Ellis (2005) “De Bot argues that there are separate systems for the L1 and

L2 as far as the processing components of the formulator are concerned” (p. 172). The L2 speakers face problem as they are “demanding on memory” (p. 173).

It is also said by Lennon (2000) that the problem lies in the formulation stage where speakers grope for the lexis and syntax from their “mental lexicon” (p. 32) to articulate their concept. Bilinguals and multilinguals face this problem because they have access to two or more linguistic systems simultaneously. Hence, for L₂ acquisition, there should be a “progressive strengthening of intralingual links relative to interlingual links in the mental lexicon” (p. 32).

According to Mitchell and Myles (2002), fluency development in learners also takes account of psychological models. Towell and Hawkins’ model of second language acquisition is one of them. The model proposed by them “attempts to integrate how learners learn L2 system with how they learn to use the system” (p. 92).

The basic points discussed in this model are as follows:

- If hypotheses about the L2 structure that has been derived internally, leads to the production in L2, then this is retained in procedural memory. That means, at first they get stored in the memory as associative form and then as an autonomous form.
- The routines which have been learned (example: *how old are you?* which is produced without any creative rule for making interrogatives) can be kept in the “procedural memory at the associative level, before going back to declarative meaning for reanalysis under controlled process” (p. 94). When the stages of analysis and reanalysis are over, routines get stored in the autonomous procedure.

- Rules that are explicit may be learned and retained in the procedural memory.
- Strategies of learning form a part of the information processing aspect of the model.

Thus, this model combines the two approaches, linguistic and cognitive, in order to study second language learning.

2.5 Measures of Fluency

Campbell-Larsen (2012) has presented a list of fluency as well as disfluency markers on the basis of which spoken English can be assessed. These are as follows:

- Fluency markers: “discourse markers and small words, use of chunks, appropriate discourse structuring, active strategizing to resolve communication breakdowns and so on” (p.64).
- Disfluency markers: “use of L1, protracted silence, inappropriately short answers, use of L1 backchanneling systems, failure to use (appropriate) smallwords, or failure to use them at the appropriate, and so on ” (p.64).

Defining fluency, Brumfit says that it is an effective application of linguistic system so far attained by a learner (as cited in Nation, 1990). Keeping in view the definitions of fluency given by Fillmore and Brumfit, Nation (1990) suggests that fluency can be measured by taking into account the following three points:

- The speed and flow of language production.
- The degree of control of language items.
- The way language and content interact.

Some of the measures of fluency have been discussed below:

Non-verbal aspect

The difference between conversation and other kinds of language use lies in the fact that conversation comprises both the verbal as well as non-verbal aspects (Bavelas, 2000). The author says that those non-verbal acts which can be seen and “are tightly synchronized with speech” (p. 91) are important in the study of oral fluency. These kinds of non-verbal aspects are “hand gestures and facial displays” (p. 92) of the speakers. The non-verbal response of listeners also gives a feedback to the speakers.

Intonation

The role of Intonation is very important in fluency. According to Wennerstrom (2000), the variation of pitch differentiates between the “given and new information and to segment chunks of discourse according to turn-taking conventions” (p. 106). Hence a fluent speaker must learn to “speak phrasally” (p. 125) and must exhibit coherence in their utterance.

Temporal Variables:

According to Wood (2004), temporal variables include speed, repairs, amount and frequency of hesitation, location of pauses, and length of runs of fluent speech between pauses. Rate of speech is measured by words or syllables uttered per minute or second, but this is not considered to be a benchmark to measure fluency. An insight into frequency and location of pauses is considered important in measuring fluency. Woods (2004) states that highly fluent L2 speakers and native speakers tend to pause at sentences and clause junctures, or between non-integral components of clauses and clauses themselves. Pausing at other points within sentences gives the impression of disfluency.

Longer length of fluent runs between pauses also indicates a highly fluent speech. Yurong and Nan (2008) used three categories which altogether had six indices to measure fluency. The three categories and the indices that fall under them are as follow:

- Temporal: It included mean length of utterances and average length of pauses.
- Linguistic- It took into account ratio of error free T-units and mean length of C-units after pruning. T- Unit as defined by the authors is “a main clause plus all subordinate clauses and non-clausal structures attached to or embedded in it.”(Gaies, as cited in Yurong and Nan, 2008, p. 78). C-units are units of communication which have been explained as “grammatical independent predictions or [...] answer to questions which lack only the repetition of the question elements to satisfy the criterion of independent prediction”(Mehner, as cited in Yurong and Nan 2008, p. 78).
- Performance: It dealt with ratio of reformulation and replacement to total repairs and ratio of inaccurate pronunciation to accurate pronunciation.

2.6 Factors Affecting Fluency

Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis in his second language theory states that affective variables such as anxiety, motivation, self-efficacy and so on act as filters, which hinder the development of second language in learners. Defining self-efficacy as the judgement of one’s own ability to carry out certain task, Bandura says that the motivation and self efficacy are directly related (as cited in Schneider, 2001). “The greater one’s self efficacy to do a task, the greater would be the motivation to do it” (p. 2). Success of a task also depends on the factor that whether the motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, the former refers to the interest in doing a task while the later

denotes the usefulness of a task for the learners. Schneider (2001) also states the attitude that a learner has towards a language judges the ability of learner to master that language. Citing Csikszentmihalyi and Rathunde, Schneider (2001) reports that higher self esteem and self efficacy help the students to remain “intrinsically motivated” (p. 4) to perform a task successfully and this also helps in retaining their learning in long term memory.

Acquisition of language also depends on the age of the learner. Referring to the point suggested by Thomas Scovel (1969), Brown (1987) says that before reaching puberty, a child can successfully acquire both the first language and the second language because lateralization begins at the age of 2 and finishes around puberty. During this period, the child assigns different functions including language to the two different hemispheres (left & right) of his/her brain. Consequently, when the process of lateralization is over, it becomes difficult for the people to ‘easily acquire fluent control of a second language or at least to acquire it with what Alexander Guiora et al. (1972a) call “authentic” (native-like) pronunciation’ (Brown 1987, p. 43).

2.7 Challenges Involved in Making Fluent English Speech

The most common problem with the ESL students in producing a spontaneous speech is that they are not adequately exposed to the English language. Speaking needs some kind of real exposure to an audience. These students are conscious of making mistakes and have a fear of attracting criticism from their audience. Naturally, they prefer to remain silent. As mentioned by Ur (1991), L₂ learners feel that they are unable to think of what to say when they are asked to speak English. He further says that the ESL students feel “unnatural to speak to one another in a foreign language” (p. 121).

According to Ho (2007), many challenges prop out because the language learnt in an institution is totally different from what is used and spoken in the real world. She puts it succinctly in the following lines:

The second language is found to be based on literate and academic knowledge and preoccupied with the written word (Barnes, 1975; Widowson, 1978; Brynes, 1998) in the sense that emphasis is placed on the standard written code found in formal texts, even in oral communication. (p. 39)

It is also mentioned by the author that learning a language gets priority over using a language. Kramsch (1998, cited in Ho, 2007) claims that oral fluency has not been given much importance in “academic discourse” (Ho, 2007, p.40) and the skill learnt at academics requires one to achieve competence within the school setting. As a result, they are not competent enough to use the language divergently in the outside world. This incompetence in language causes feeling of being tongue tied and creates anxiety and frustration among the learners (Betty, Leaver, Shekhtman, 2005).

Teaching of second language as observed by Fazili (2007) has not been following appropriate methodology in Indian classrooms. The reasons which contributed towards this situation are listed below:

- a) A wide heterogeneity in the competence levels of the students.
- b) Unmanageable classroom population
- c) Lengthy syllabus
- d) Literature – orientated courses
- e) Teachers are untrained

Language learning/ teaching is considered to be a process that is purely mechanical and that ignores the cognitive aspects. Further, she says that the teachers are at the bottom-most position of the curriculum framework. They are only responsible for

transferring the materials advised by higher authorities to the students without analyzing their needs. The other problem lies with the poor examination system because it merely tests memory and luck of the students, instead of their competence and performance in the specific skills. This point is also supported by Ho (2007), who says that ESL learners learn the language to pass the tests. Hence, English is considered “just another subject” (Willis, 1981, p.41) that has to be mugged up to score well in exams. Willis (1981), too, agrees with Ho (2007) and says that “unfortunately the requirements of the exam dictate teaching priorities, and all, too often students leave schools unable to communicate orally in English” (p.41). The author believes that non-native English teachers are compelled to rely mostly on the text books. They are unable to connect classroom teaching of L2 to the need for the same in the world outside the class. Completion of the course becomes the sole aim of both the teachers and the students.

A class room talk as described by Ho (2007) is characterized by an exchange which is carried out in three parts between the teachers and the students. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) named this three part exchange structure as I – R – F (initiation – response – feedback) (as cited in Ho, 2007). If a teacher initiates the interaction, there has to be a participatory response from the student which in turn is evaluated by the teacher through a feedback move. But for many years, the initiation by teachers is in the form of a display question where teacher already knows the answer. Wells (1999) while analyzing the I-R-F exchange finds that such talk moves around a very limited range of content and thus has a very little capability to promote talk in the target language (as cited in Debbie, 2007). Unless a student is able to participate in the natural use of the target language, she/he cannot be a fluent speaker of that language. It is claimed by Ho (2007) that “the more well defined the structure of authority in the schools and

class rooms the more students are discouraged from using the target language in an interactive and spontaneous manner”(p.21). Rogoff says that there should be a dialogic teacher-pupil relationship and the students must have an active role in negotiating the instructional process (as cited in Ho, 2007).

Another drawback with the ESL classroom talk is that it is teachers centered. As stated by Aslam (2008), a student hardly gets more than ten seconds to speak English in class out of the forty minutes period. The lack of exposure to English in classroom itself makes students incompetent in the language.

Apart from all these, certain phonetic features are problematic for the students learning English as a second language. These phonetic features make them unintelligible to their audience; consequently they prefer to remain silent. Shackle (1987) has discussed certain phonemes that have their equivalents in Indian languages, but there are some which cause problems in the articulation. Some of the phonetic problems are explained below:

- Consonants: Consonants like /p, b, g, m, n, j, h, s, f, v, t, d, z, k, l, ʃ, ŋ, r, tʃ, w, dʒ/ do not create much problem of intelligibility and articulation. However, Sounds like / ʒ, θ, ð/ cause problems of articulation. Consonants like / θ, ð/ are replaced by aspirated dental /t^h/ and unaspirated /d/ respectively, which may cause problem of intelligibility at the national as well as international levels. Distinction between /v/ and /w/ is also not very clear with many of the ESL language users but they hardly affect listeners' comprehension. However, substituting one consonant by another is the most problematic area which is discussed below:

1. /ʒ/ of *measure* is often replaced by /dʒ/ sound which confuses the listener. Thus *measure* becomes *major*. Sometimes /ʒ/ is also replaced by /z/ and *measure* becomes /me:zə/.
2. Most of the speakers from Bihar, Bengal and Gujarat interchange the use of /s/ and /ʃ/ sound. For example, the speaker intends to say "*she's the one whom I saw at the sea shore*" will say /si:z də wən ai sɔ: æt də ʃi: ʃɔ:r/. Thus the meaning comes out as *cease the one I saw at the sea shore*.
3. Sometimes /z/ is replaced by /dʒ/ by the speakers from Bihar and Bengal. For example /zest/ becomes /dʒest/.
4. /dʒ/ is used in place of /z/. For example *damage* becomes /dæmez/.
5. Most of the Indian speakers use aspirated /p^h/ instead of /f/ sound. For example *fool* becomes /p^hu:l/.

(Shackle, 1987; Shuja, 1995)

- Vowels also create much problem for the ESL learners, for instance there are certain vowel sounds that make Indian speech unintelligible and hence destroy their fluency. These are as follows:

1. /e/ and /æ/ are often interchanged when they are used in English speech. For example: *bed* becomes /bæd/ , *back* becomes /bek/ and *snacks* becomes /sneks/
2. Shortening of the long vowels. Example *seat* becomes /sit/.
3. Elongation of the short vowels. Example *Delhi* becomes /de:li/.
4. The diphthongs /ei/ and /əu/ are articulated as the monophthongs /e:/ and /o:/, respectively. Example *cake* /keik/ as /ke:k/ and *boat* as /bəut/ as /bo:t/.

5. /a:/ generally replaces the vowels /ɔ/ and /ɔ:/. Example- *ball* becomes /ba:l/.

The above mentioned problems are mostly found in the speakers of Uttar Pradesh.

(Shackle, 1987; Shuja 1995)

- Consonant clusters: English language permits certain consonant clusters at the beginning and at the end of a word. But different languages have different rules for the consonant clusters. For example, English allows initial consonant cluster /sk,sp, st, sn, sm/ which Urdu language does not permit. This feature causes the hindrance in the English speech of Urdu speakers and thus they face embarrassment when exposed to native speakers of English or those which have near native like pronunciation in English. Epenthesis is the most common phenomenon found in the speech of many ESL learners. Due to unavailability of certain English consonant clusters in their mother tongue, they mispronounce the word. Example, insertion of vowel in consonant clusters. *Class* is mispronounced as /kila:s/, and *bread* is /bi:red/.
- Stress: It plays a vital role in conveying meaning. If a word is wrongly stressed, it may affect the listeners' comprehension and the intended meaning of the speaker may get destroyed:

Example: The sentence "The doctor advised me operation (/ɒpə-rei-ʃn/)." Here the syllable /rei/ gets the primary stress. If the stress is wrongly placed on the syllable /ɒpə/ the word becomes *oppression* (/ɒp-re:-ʃn/). Hence the wrong stress pattern can lead to miscommunication. ESL speakers have the tendency to put the stress in words or sentences improperly because of the interference from the mother tongue which may follow different stress patterns. Thus, they cut a sorry figure among their target language audience.

- Intonation: According to Shackle (1987),

The typical rising intonation of question in English is reserved for expressions of surprise in most South Asian languages. Their characteristic interrogative pattern, in which the end of a question is marked by a rise-fall in the intonation, is quite unlike the English norm, and can easily cause misunderstanding (p.232).

Thus, it can be said that correct intonation pattern should be executed in English speech so that the message gets conveyed successfully.

Hence, a sound knowledge of phonetics practiced with activities would be helpful to improve English speech. Further, Betty and Shekhtman (2005) have suggested some remedies that would improve and relax the anxious speakers of English. They are:

- Simplification: Use of short phrases and sentences are to be encouraged.
- Islands: Learning to speak on topics which are frequently used may help ESL learners to use English confidently.
- Focus on the known: Making the language work with the limited knowledge of that language would motivate the students to speak efficiently.

2.8 Literature Review

Quite a comprehensive research has been going on to innovate strategies to develop the oral fluency among ESL learners. It has been observed that ESL students are good enough in their writing skill, when compared to speaking skill. Keeping in mind the observation, many scholars are working on how to improve the oral fluency of ESL learners. Given below is a brief review available in the related area of research under study.

According to Swain (1985), a second language learner can achieve native speakers' fluency in L₂ when the learner is "pushed towards the delivery of the message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately." (as cited in Nation, 1989, p.378). Nation (1989) supports Maurice's (1983) 4/3/2 technique to develop fluency because this technique leads to:

- Change in audience every time a person speaks.
- Repetition which helps them to access the language easily which has already been produced.
- Reducing time frame puts pressure on students to convey message in a precise and effective way.

Nation (1989) further states that this technique helps L2 learners to use many communication strategies while carrying out the tasks in L2. In this way, the learners learn to omit unnecessary words in repeated talks and also the frequency of false starts, repetitions and hesitations get reduced.

He also suggested games like Marketplace and Messenger. In Marketplace, students are asked to play the roles of sellers and buyers. Each seller has to deal with different buyers and convince them to buy the products. In this way a seller addresses different audiences with the same talk. Another game, Messenger, divides students into different groups, like there is one who describes (describer), and then one who conveys the message (messenger) and the one who makes the pictures. Here, a student who plays the role of describer has some pictures to describe and it cannot be seen by others. A describer describes the picture to the messenger and the messenger goes to the maker and guides him to make the picture as explained by the describer. Hence the author insisted on adapting 4/3/2 technique while using fluency activities in the larger classroom.

To promote fluency, Nation (2003) suggests maximizing the use of second language in the classroom and at the same time also incorporating first language in the teacher talk to some extent. This can be done by carrying out managing the L2 classrooms which takes into account the following features:

- Telling the class what to do.
- Controlling behaviour of students.
- Explaining activities etc.

(p. 2)

The author also states that before starting an activity in the classroom, a teacher should use L₁ to instruct them how to do an activity. This technique would ease out students' cognitive load of what to speak and how to speak in the second language.

Communication strategies also help to maintain fluency in the second language, because learners can paraphrase, practice circumlocution, etc. when they lack appropriate vocabulary and grammatical knowledge to express themselves (Brown, 2003). Tam (1997) in her article incorporates the teaching of suprasegmental elements (e.g. voice control, stress, pitch etc.) in a teaching program that is meant to develop fluency. The author conducted an experiment on the students from People's Republic of China to develop their English speech where they were engaged in three components of activities. These components are as follows:

- Fluency Practise: The students were instructed to follow 4/3/2 technique while performing activities.
- Oral reading: The students were encouraged to read in order to practise the articulation of tough words and correct stress pattern. This also helped them produce appropriate rhythm in sentences and reading in "meaningful thought-groups"(p.26). This activity was carried out in groups. One member

used to read the text aloud and the others gave feedback on the comprehension of message, pronunciation etc.

- Dialogue practice: This practice used a lot of reduced forms such as contraction, elision, assimilation and reduction which are the characteristics of a natural and fluent talk. These phonological processes result in the fading of word boundaries, deletion of end vowels and consonants and substitution of elements within words.

Bresnihan and Stoops (1996) discussed three activities to promote fluency which can be quite effective in larger classrooms. These are:

- Talking Zone: The students are required to discuss with other students on the topic which has been covered in the classroom that day without looking into the written notes. The teacher has to create two zones i.e. non-talking zone and talking zone. The students keep all the written materials in the non-talking zone where students come for help when they feel that they are unable to talk in the talking zone. As the students have access to the materials, they feel less anxious and speak successfully.
- Speaking Line: Here students have “totally unscripted conversations on their own” (p. 30) and can have longer conversations with their partners, if they wish.
- Conversation game: The students are asked to discuss a topic in a group of four or five, only in English. The teacher provides some “game markers” (p. 30) like beads, buttons, sea shells etc. to each group. As a rule, each speaker of the group has to speak in English only, in order to get a game marker. And if any speaker uses any other language he has to put his earned mark back on the piles of markers. At the end of the game, one with the highest number of

the markers wins the game. Hence, in this game all the speakers of the same group monitor their own as well as others' speech. The fear of being penalized and the happiness of being rewarded motivate the speakers of group to converse in English only.

Brumfit says that the activities for developing fluency in the classroom should incorporate "a pattern of language interaction within the classroom which is as close as possible to that used by competent performers in the mother tongue in normal life" (as cited in Nunan, 1989). Hedge (1993) mentions a list of criteria important for the activities that are to be practiced for developing fluency in a classroom as suggested by Brumfit. The list goes as follows:

- Activities should focus on meaning, not on the forms.
- Learners should actively determine the content of the activity.
- Activities should be so designed that they encourage speakers to negotiate meanings.
- All the four skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing should be duly given due importance.
- Teachers' should not interfere too much to correct the errors of the learners as this diverts their attention from the actual message.

Another way to promote oral fluency is to make learners practise the speaking activities without putting any emphasis on the pace of their speaking. It is so because speech rate is not the prime marker of oral fluency. Speaking rate of non native speakers is somewhat slower than the native speakers (Munro & Derwing, 1998; Brown 2003). However, to communicate in English does not necessarily mean to communicate with the native speakers always, but ESL learners must be able to use

“accent and varieties of educated standard English” in order to be intelligible at the national and international levels. (Singh, 2005, p. 18-19)

According to Brown (2003), communicative language strategies can help learners communicate fluently with whatever proficiency they happen to have and at any given time, including the ability to use speed, pause and hesitations efficiently. He also maintains that:

...teachers must expand their traditional boundaries of accuracy to offer rules of appropriacy including knowledge of the communicative language tools students must be able to use, the communicative language choices they should make, and the communicative language strategies they must use to compensate for the fact that they, like all users of the language including native speakers, lack 100% knowledge of the language. (p. 2)

Brown (2003) emphasizes on the five points that can help the teachers to promote fluency in academics. These points are mentioned below:

- Motivating students to make constructive errors.
- Exposure of opportunities for students to practice a lot.
- Activities are to be designed in a way that requires students to get the message across.
- Focusing on students’ fluency rather than their accuracy.
- Talking openly to the students about fluency and convincing them so that they can actively participate in the teaching methods adopted to teach fluency. (p. 10)

Today much emphasis is placed on using communicative approach so as to develop fluency among learners because as Johnson states that “there is more to the business of communicating than the ability to produce grammatically correct utterances” (as cited

in Fysh,1990, p. 20). Hence, tasks done in groups or pairs are preferred over the tasks done in isolation. But, Bresnihan & Stoops (1996) criticized group or pair work to some extent, believing that such activities done in group or pair are not so effective, as desired by the teachers in countries where they share a common tongue and have little or no exposure to English outside the class and they often end up chatting in their native language.

Kluge (2000) has talked about the benefits of partner taping which is done outside the classroom. Here, students record their conversation (done outside the classroom) with their partners and submit their recordings weekly to their teacher which is supposed to be their home assignment. In the classroom, the students are provided with two kinds of tape named as “Tape K” which is a “keepsake tape” and “Tape W”, a “working tape”. The students were required to submit their individual recordings on the side A of the Tape K at the beginning of the academic year and at the end of the academic year, they had to submit their recording on the side B of the Tape K. The Tape W was used to record their weekly free conversation with their partner, thus, at the end of the session, Tape K was used to judge their improvement in oral fluency using some measures of fluency. This method motivated them to actively participate in second language communication and shown some improvements and developments in the learners. The author has given a list of benefits of partner taping. These are:

- Students develop real fluency and ease in using English.
- Students nearly always stay in English while taping, as they are conscious of a listener.
- Students get hours of extra practice and a concrete record of their progress.
- Students have a concrete record of their progress.

- Students gain a sense of responsibility for their progress beyond the classroom.
- Teachers gain a better sense of who the students are and what their language problems may be.
- Most students enjoy the taping and recognize its value.
- The spirit of the school is transformed as hallways, lobbies and lounge areas fill up with students chatting in English.

(Kluge, 2000)

Pair-taping suggested by Schneider (2001) made learners to make recording of their speech in pairs in the language laboratory. The students had a choice, either to attend the class once a week or make recording of their conversation with their pair on any topic for the same time as allotted for the class. The students who opted for pair-taping were more benefited than those who chose to attend class. In the words of Schneider (2001):

Pair taping learners reported greater quantitative increases than classroom learners in self-confidence and improvement (in expectancy and achievement), in enjoyment and wanting to improve (in intrinsic valuing and desire to achieve), and in relaxation and ease of speaking. (p. 21)

Gonzalez (2000) says that use of stories and narrative discourse structures also enhance fluency, because there are some patterns which are repeated in stories. The author also mentions a model of story grammar that could be used in the second language classroom. The model is as follows:

Setting	+	Theme	+	Episode	+	Resolution
Character		Goal		Sub goal		Actions
Place		Event		Problems		Feelings
Time				Steps to solve it		Moral Outcome

Developing vocabulary that is appropriate in its context of use is another technique that helps to articulate fluently (Brown 2003; Lennon, 2000). Even teaching the expressions as a whole helps the students to speak language confidently, (Gonzalez, 2000). Qi (2003) suggests activity which is based on movies to develop oral fluency of English learners, because they are rich in idiomatic expressions. The activity suggested by the author progressed in a way that allows students to imitate first, then repeat and at last use English creatively.

Further, it has been suggested by Singh (2005) that the use of referential questions ('how' and 'why' questions) and inferential questions (where opinion can lead to a discussion of opinions) instead of display questions may enhance the communicative proficiency of the learners of English.

According to Larsen (2012), students' training in fluency should take into account both the engagement of students in certain behaviour and avoidance of some other. Despite the subjectivity in the nature of fluency, it has been claimed that this notion can be taught (ibid). The author has further stressed the point that fluency can be gained with the help of confined language resources available in the mental map of the students. It can be done by nurturing autonomy in their speech. Autonomy as explained by Larsen (2012) is as follow:

In terms of the development of fluency in the classroom, it may be useful to see students as *doers*, that is, people who are trying to use their existing

language resources to the best effect to achieve real world communicative goals. Autonomy in *doing* is the sense in which autonomy is here used. (p. 62)

Morgan (2012) has emphasized on the use of oral poster presentation as an efficient strategy to develop fluency. The author has justified this technique of fluency development in the words:

Oral poster presentations, now commonplace in EFL classrooms (Bayne, 2005), along with the linked skills tasks that scaffold the target task, can neatly encompass the above oral fluency development criteria. Such speaking presentations can not only improve oral proficiency, but careful topic choice and timing of engaging themes within a classroom syllabus can also lead to knowledge fluency. (p. 167)

Citing Kellem's (2009), Morgan (2012) in her article has mentioned seven principles that should be taken account when designing and carrying activities for fluency development. These are as follow:

1. Incorporate repetition
2. Increase speaking time
3. Prepare before speaking
4. Use familiar and motivating topics
5. Ensure appropriate level
6. Impose time limits
7. Teach formulaic sequences

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the importance of fluency development in second language learning. It has attempted to define the term fluency from the point of views of various

scholars. It has also touched upon the factors related to the concept of fluency. This chapter ends with a review of research carried out in the area of developing fluency.

Chapter 3

Methodology, Results and Analysis

3.1 Introduction

ESL speakers face several challenges in making fluent speech. However, these challenges can be handled by identifying the factors and adopting a suitable approach. This chapter systematically investigates and analyses the factors that pose challenges for ESL speakers. It first introduces the methodology adopted for this research and then presents the results and analysis obtained through students' questionnaire in graphical as well as tabular form.

3.2 Research Methodology

This section will discuss how the whole survey was designed, carried out and assessed. Hence, it explains the following subsections:

- Development of the questionnaire
- Selection of the respondents
- Developing the consent letter
- Piloting the questionnaire
- Data collection
- Data analysis

3.2.1 Development of the Questionnaire

The data for this research was obtained through students' questionnaire. It was divided into five sections. The first section of the questionnaire comprised ten questions (Section A, Item no. 1-10) which were framed to find out the social and academic background information of the respondents. The second section (Section B, Item

no.11-14) tried to identify the students' ability in various skills of the language and their opinion about the syllabus of the compulsory English course. The third section (Section C, Item no.15-16) dealt with the questions that were designed to know the *motivation of the students from two major sources*:

- Situations- Here item no *a-e* was framed to find out the integrative motivation of the respondents. Item no. *f-h* was designed to know the instrumental motivation of the respondents.
- Different fraternities

The fourth section (Section D, Item no. 17-18) was designed to analyze the anxiety level of the respondents and the nature of problems that arise in speaking English. The last section (Section E, Item no. 19-20) of the questionnaire tried to elicit the strategies that respondents adopt when they lack exact word/sentence to express themselves and the practices they follow to improve their oral fluency. Multiple options ranging from two to seven (as needed) were assigned for each question. Clear instructions were provided before each question so as to avoid confusion on the part of respondents.

3.2.2 Selecting the Respondents

First and second year undergraduate students of B.A, B.Sc, and B.Com formed the sample of this study. The sample comprised the students from both the rural and the urban background. For the study 160 students were randomly selected from the Women's College and the faculties of Arts, Science, Social Science and Commerce of Aligarh Muslim University (AMU). All of them were studying English as a compulsory subject.

3.2.3 Developing the Consent Letter

A consent letter was prepared which was supposed to be signed by the respondents to prove that they are willing to participate in this research. It revealed that their responses will be confidential and will be used to fulfill the aim of this research only.

3.2.4 Piloting the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was first given to ten first year students of B.A from the faculty of Arts in the year 2010 to check its effectiveness and the level of difficulty in understanding it. Accordingly the necessary changes were made. Linguistic terminologies were avoided in the questionnaire because the respondents might be unable to get those terms. After the revision, the questionnaire was distributed among the students for the survey.

3.2.5 Data Collection

In the beginning of the year 2011, the survey was finally administered to 160 students of the selected faculties. The respondents were told about the confidentiality of their responses and were explained how their participation would help the researcher to diagnose the problems that affect their fluency in English speech.

3.2.6 Data Analysis

Out of 160 questionnaires (40 questionnaires for each faculty), only 100 were properly and completely filled up. Hence, only 100 samples were used for the data analysis. The obtained data was fed into the computer and analyzed by using SPSS Software version 16.0 statistical package. To generate descriptive statistics, frequencies were run on the software. The percentage and mean for each question or variable were presented in tabular and/or graphical form. The correlation was also computed in order to establish the relationship between fluency and certain other variables.

3.2.6.1 Analysis of the First Section of the Questionnaire (Section A)

Gender, age and origin of the respondents

The first question enquired about the gender of the informants. Out of 100 participants, 40 were male and 60 female. The second question investigated about the age group of the respondents. The responses revealed that 60% of the participants were in the age group of 17-19 years, while 40% were in the age group of 20-22 years. Considering the place of origin (question number 3), 58% of the sample belonged to urban areas and the rest 42% had rural background.

It is a widely accepted fact that the infrastructure for education through English medium is not yet properly developed in rural areas. Consequently, students from rural areas lack exposure to English language not only in personal and social life but also in academics. Therefore, they face challenges while speaking English.

Mother tongue of the respondents

The result of question number 4 (that enquired about the mother tongue of the respondents), Fig. 3.1, showed that majority of the respondents (48%) had Urdu as their mother tongue. On the other hand, 25% of the sample opted for Hindi, the other 25% opted for Bengali, and the remaining 2% had some other mother tongue.

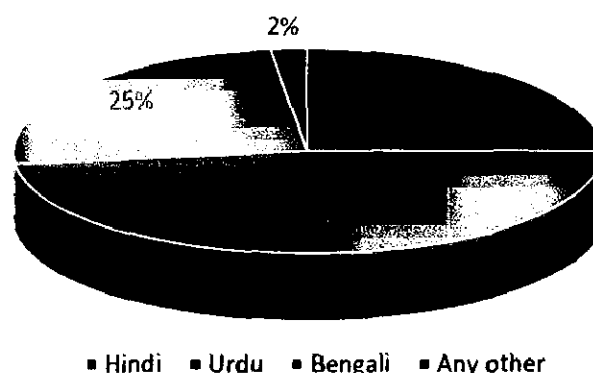


Fig. 3.1. Mother tongue of the respondents

Since each language has a unique structure of its own, interference of mother tongue in second language (L2) learning also becomes an important issue. As students could find friends who shared the same mother tongue, they are tempted to use the same for communication. Therefore, they find an easy escape from using English in their social and academic life.

Q: Which other language/s do you use?

Fig. 3.2 shows the responses to question number 5 that investigated about the use of other languages apart from the mother tongue. It was found that 56% of the respondents used Hindi, 11% used English, 31% used Urdu and 2% used some other languages besides their mother tongue.

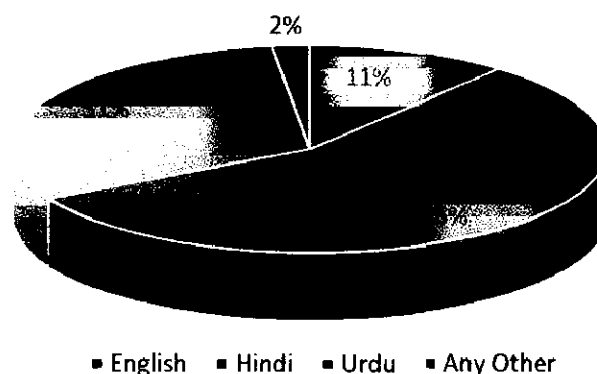


Fig. 3.2. Use of other languages by respondents

It is evident from the result that very small population preferred to use English besides their mother tongue. Thus, lack in oral proficiency in English can also be attributed to the extensive use of other languages excluding English by the respondents.

Q: At what age did you start learning English?

In question number 6, which enquired about learning English, 57% of the respondents informed that they started to learn English in the age group of 3-5 years while only 1% started when they were below 3 years. It is quite a noticeable point that 42% of the

respondents began to learn the language only after the age of 6 years. Since, the students having reached this age have already acquired their mother tongue efficiently, therefore, it can be said that the delay in exposure to English may have resulted in poor English speech.

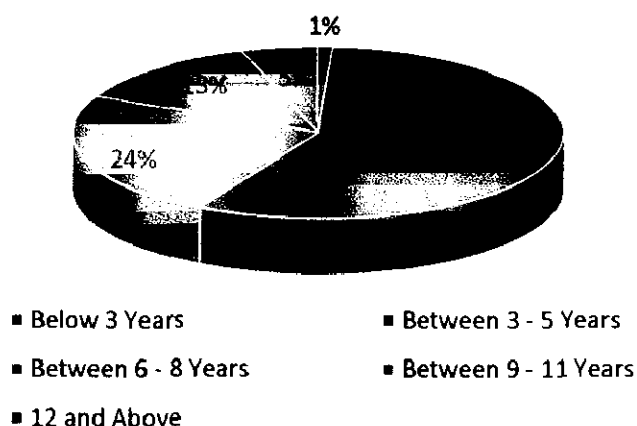


Fig. 3.3 Age at which respondents started to learn English

Q: For how many years have you been learning English?

According to the response for question number 7 (as shown in Fig. 3.4), 56% and 25% of the population claimed to have spent 9-11 years and 12 and above years respectively in studying English. However, 4% of the population admitted to have studied English for less than three years only. There were 8% of the informants who said that they studied English for the time span of 3-5 years and 7% who spent 6-8 years for the same.

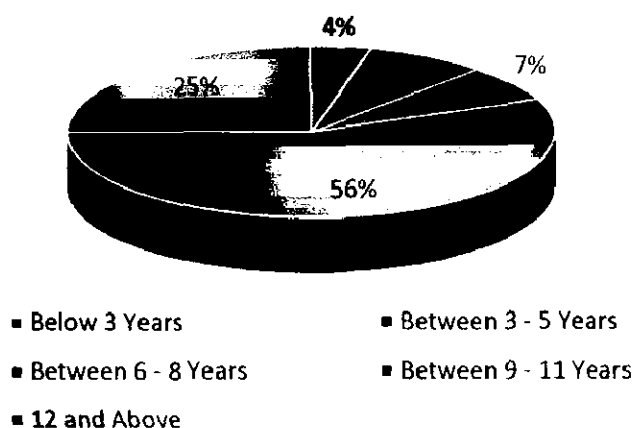


Fig. 3.4. Number of years spent in learning English

According to Light Brown (cited by Brown, 1987: 242) “one cannot achieve native like (or near native like) command of a second language in one hour a day”, therefore, learning L2 requires adequate exposure to the language. It is observed from the result that a good number of participants spent more than nine years in learning English yet they are not fluent speakers of English. The reason could be that they might be studying the language only to fulfill their academic needs.

Medium of instruction

Fig. 3.5 shows the response to question number 8 that investigated about the medium of instruction at the primary level, middle school and the intermediate level of the education of the respondents. It was observed that 47% of the participants had English, 33% had Hindi, 10% had Urdu and the other 10% had Bengali as the medium of education at the primary level.

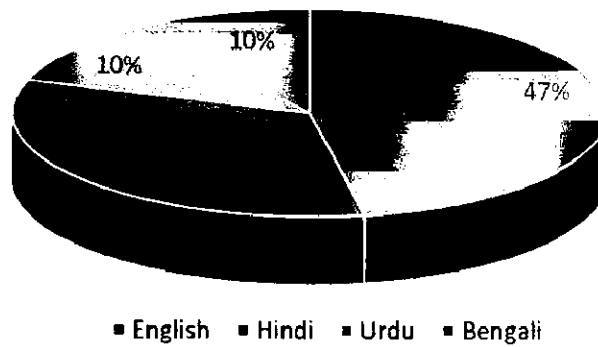


Fig. 3. 5. Medium of instruction at primary level

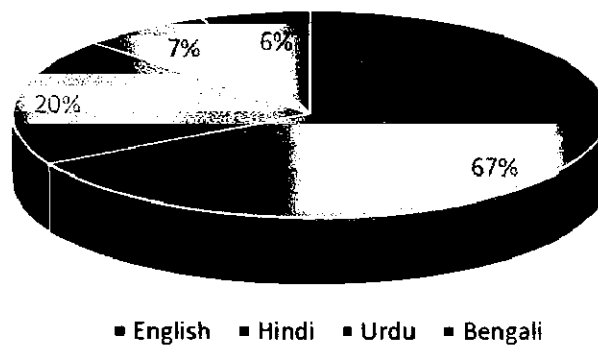


Fig. 3.6. Medium of instruction in middle school

In the middle school, 7% of the respondents had English, 20% had Hindi, 7% had Urdu and 6% had Bengali as medium of instruction. The above discussed result is shown in Fig. 3.6.

Fig. 3.7 shows that the medium of instruction for 84% of the informants was English, 9% was Hindi, 45% was Urdu and 3% was Bengali at the intermediate level.

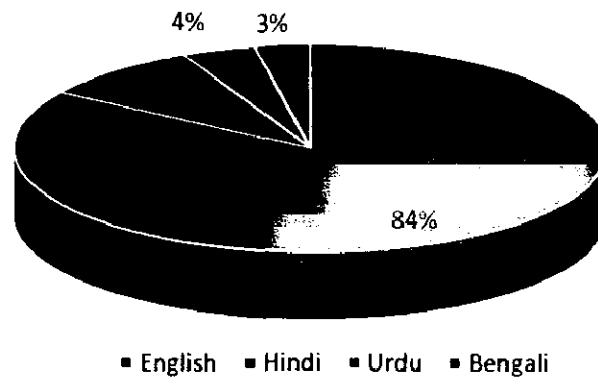


Fig. 3.7. Medium of instruction at intermediate level

The survey for this question revealed that by the time respondents reached their intermediate level in their academics, they had an awareness of the utility of English language or it can be said that they needed English to pursue higher studies. Fig. 3.7 shows the increased number of respondents at the intermediate level with English as the medium of instruction.

Parent's qualification

Question number 9 enquired about the qualification of the parents of the respondents. It was found that 51% of the respondents' father was post-graduate, 34% said graduate, 9% marked against undergraduate option, 4% said that their father studied up to high school, and 2% mentioned that their father went to primary school only, please see Fig. 3.8.

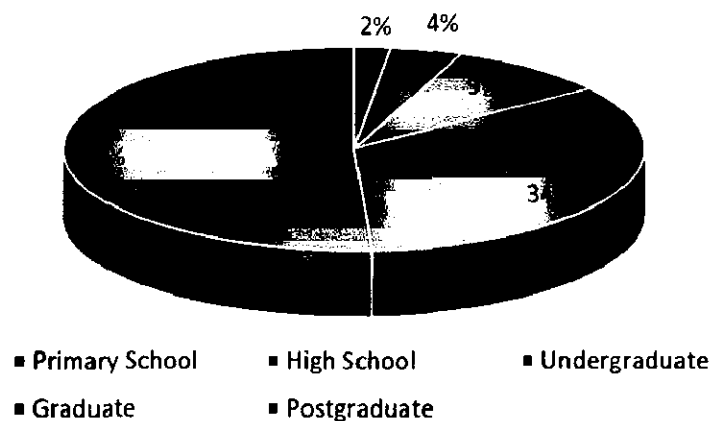


Fig. 3.8. Qualification of respondents' father

Similarly, 10% of the sample said that their mother was post-graduate, 25% opted for graduate, 17% mentioned undergraduate, 23% said that their mother went to high school while 25% marked against the choice primary school as shown in Fig. 3.9.

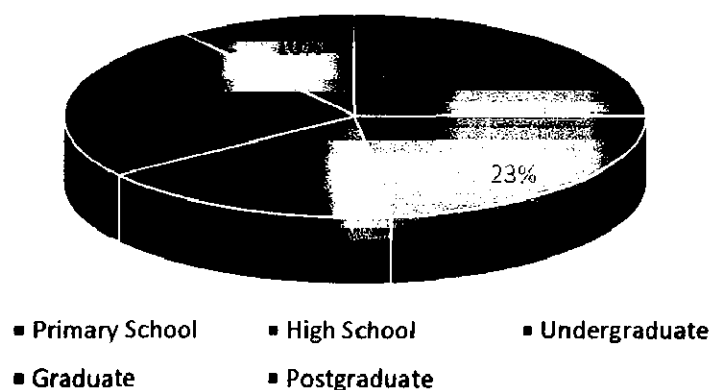


Fig. 3.9. Mother's qualification

To some extent, parents' educational qualifications also affect the attainment of proficiency in English by their children. The more the parents are educated, the more the children feel confident, but exceptions cannot be ruled out.

Q: How would you rate your ability in speaking English with ease?

The last question (question no.10) of this part investigated about students own perception about their fluency in English speech. Here majority of population, i.e. 43%

felt that their fluency is poor whereas a small percentage (3%) of the respondents admitted to have very poor fluency. While 37% of them claimed that their fluency in English is average, only 17% of them said that their fluency is good. As shown in Fig. 3.10, there was no one who claimed that their fluency is very good.

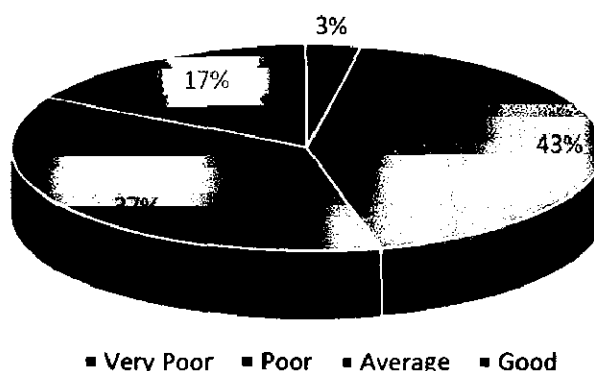


Fig. 3.10. Fluency of informants

The later sections would discuss some of the possible factors that make one a non fluent speaker of English.

3.2.6.2 Analysis of the Second Section of the Questionnaire (Section- B)

This part of the questionnaire had four questions. All questions followed the Likert scale format. It tried to identify student's ability in various skills and sub skills of the language, their potential to use English for different purposes and their opinion about the syllabus of compulsory English course.

Q: How would you rate your ability in the following skills?

In question number 11, students responded to their proficiency in English language. This question had a five-point scale where 5 = Very Good, 4 = Good, 3 = Average, 2 = Poor and 1 = Very Poor. Table 3.1 shows statistical mean of students' opinion of their proficiency in various skills of English language.

Table 3.1 Proficiency Level of Students in LSRW skills

Skills	Number of Respondents	Mean
Listening (L)	100	4.05
Speaking (S)	100	3.11
Reading (R)	100	4.16
Writing (W)	100	3.93
Receptive (R+L)	100	4.10
Productive (S+W)	100	3.52

As shown in Table 3.1, the mean of 3.11 suggested that most of the respondents admitted that their speaking is average (as the value 3.11 is nearer to the scale 3 which stands for 'average'). There were only 28% of respondents who considered their speaking skill to be good and no one believed that their efficiency in speaking is very good. The majority (55%) of the students were average in speaking while 17% were very poor. The pictorial depiction of the obtained result is shown in Fig. 3.11.

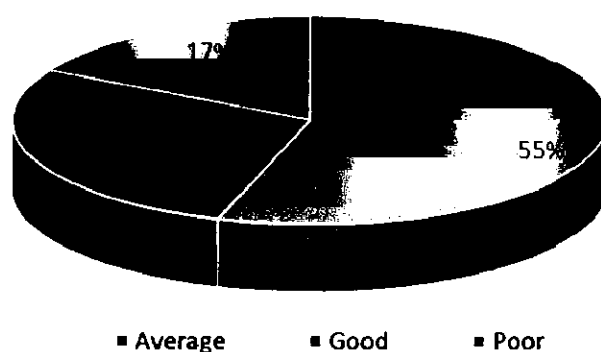


Fig. 3.11. Proficiency of respondents in speaking

For writing, mean of opinion was 3.93. As the value 3.93 is close to the scale 4 which stands for 'good', therefore, it implies that the respondents considered themselves to have good writing skill. The frequency chart, Fig. 3.12, shows that 30% and 39% of the respondents marked their skill in writing as very good and good respectively. The

other 25% of the sample felt that they are average in their writing skill, while 6% marked themselves in the category of poor.

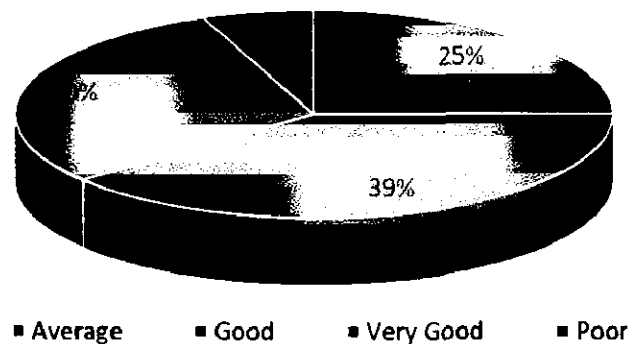


Fig. 3.12. Proficiency of respondents in writing

Listening skill obtained the mean of 4.05 which signifies that informants believed that they have good listening ability (as the value of the mean is closer to the scale 4 which stands for 'good'). The pie-chart in Fig. 3.13 reveals the judgement of students on their listening capability. A good number of respondents (69%) considered themselves as good listeners while 18% said that they are very good listeners. Another 13% of them marked against the option average for this variable. There was no one who opted for the categories poor or very poor.

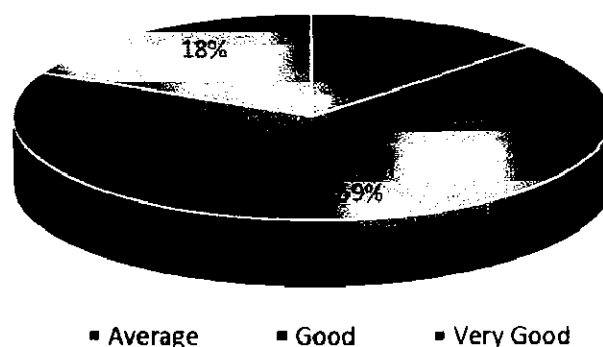


Fig. 3.13 Proficiency of respondents in listening

The statistics generated the mean of 4.16 for reading skill which indicates that informants' opinion was 'good' for this variable (mean is near to the scale 4). The chart shown in Fig. 3.14 depicts that 44% of the informants categorized themselves as very good, 39% good, 11% average, while only 6% of them believed to have poor reading skill.

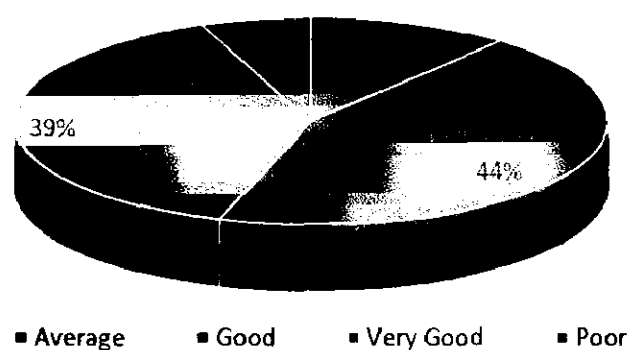


Fig. 3.14. Proficiency of the students in reading

On the basis of the above results, the mean for receptive and productive skills were computed as new variables in datasheet. The mean for listening and reading formed the receptive skill and the mean for speaking and writing accounted for the productive one. These variables (productive and receptive skills) were not put in the questionnaire deliberately as the respondents might not be aware of these linguistic jargons. Instead, these terms were simplified by using the terms listening, speaking, reading and writing. The new variables were created for the sake of interpretation of the result.

The result for question number 11 indicated that the receptive skill of the respondents were far better than the productive skill. This may be due to the structure of classroom discourse where display questions have a dominant role and some constraints that compel the teachers to focus mainly on the receptive skill. Constraints may be due to

the lack of time to complete the syllabus, inappropriate syllabus or inability to use technology that promotes productive skill.

Q: How helpful is the syllabus of Compulsory English course to develop the following skills in the language?

Question number 12 followed the scale which ranged for 5 to 1 (5= Very Helpful, 4=Quite Helpful, 3= Somewhat helpful, 2=Hardly Helpful, 1=Not at all Helpful). It enquired about students' opinion about the role of Compulsory English course in developing all the four skills (LSRW) of English. The following Table 3.2 shows the mean for the different variables of this question.

Table 3.2. Efficiency of CE syllabus to develop the four skills of the language

Skills	Number of respondents	Mean
Listening	100	3.84
Speaking	100	3.39
Reading	100	4.00
Writing	100	4.05

The informants' opinion regarding the efficiency of Compulsory English (CE) course to develop writing was 'quite helpful', as the mean value for this variable is obtained as 4.05 in the Table 3.2 (mean value is near to the scale 4 which stands for 'quite helpful'). In the survey 37% and 41% of the sample felt that this course is very helpful and quite helpful respectively for improving writing. The other 22% (14% = somewhat helpful, 6% = Hardly helpful and 2% = Not at all helpful) did not show much consent for this variable. The chart given in Fig. 3.15 illustrates the result more clearly.



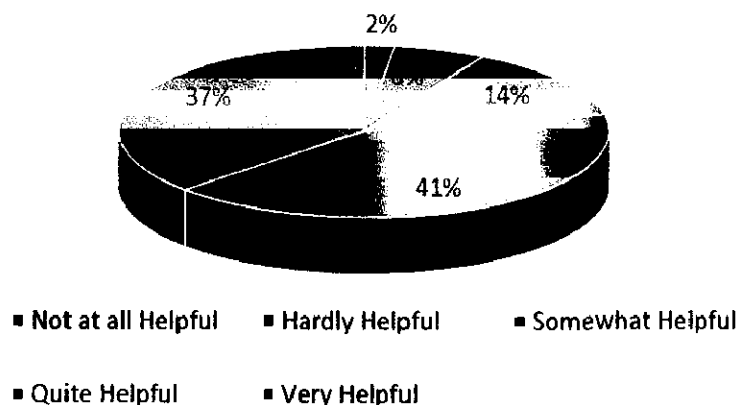


Fig. 3.15. Efficiency of Compulsory English (CE) course in developing writing skill

Reading skill obtained the mean of 4.0 (corresponds to scale value 4 which means 'quite helpful') for this query. It indicates that respondents believed that this skill is adequately covered by the CE course. As shown in the Fig. 3.16, 34%, 38% and 22% of the respondents went for the options very helpful, quite helpful and somewhat helpful respectively. Only 6% of the students who participated in this survey felt that the syllabus of CE course prescribed to develop reading is hardly helpful for them.

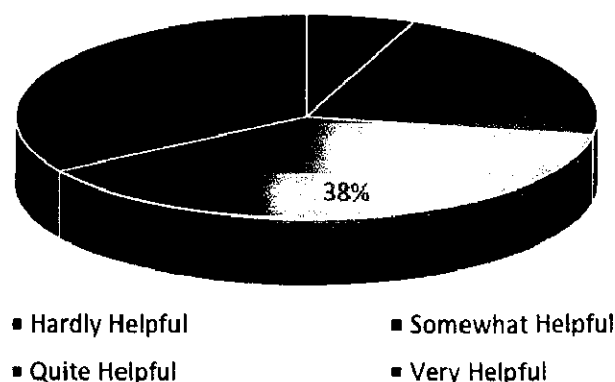


Fig. 3.16. Efficiency of Compulsory English (CE) course in developing reading skill

Talking about listening, the mean value of 3.84 (closer to the scale value 4 which means 'quite helpful'), reveals that CE course also deals with the listening skill adequately. The depiction of frequency is shown in the pie chart in Fig. 3.17 (21%= very helpful, 47%= quite helpful, 27%= somewhat helpful and 5%= hardly helpful).

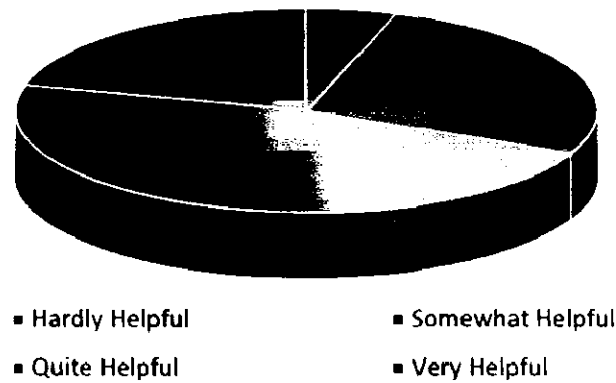


Fig. 3.17. Efficiency of Compulsory English (CE) course in developing listening skill

Speaking skill received the mean of 3.39. It is evident that the value of mean is close to the rank scale 3 which was coded for the opinion 'somewhat helpful'. Thus, it can be said that speaking skill is not sufficiently addressed by CE course. As presented in Fig. 3.18, only 8% of the respondents felt that the course is very helpful for developing speaking. While 40% of them felt it to be quite helpful, the other 52% of the sample (35%=somewhat helpful and 17%=hardly helpful) felt this course is not much efficient to enhance speaking.

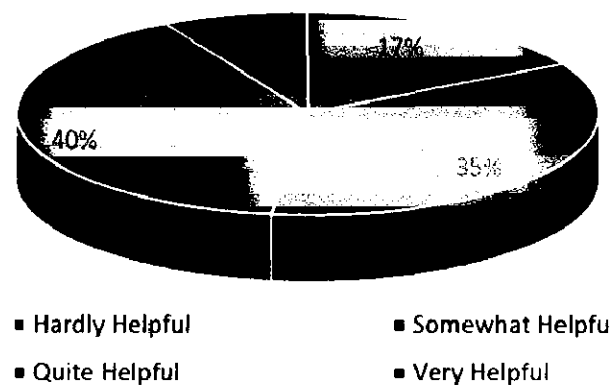


Fig. 3.18. Efficiency of Compulsory English (CE) course in developing speaking skill

The result indicated that CE course is not sufficient enough to build up the speaking skill of the students. This may be due to the inadequate use of technology in the classrooms at AMU. Another reason could be that the syllabus for this course is

neither need oriented for the students nor for the teachers. Moreover, this skill is not evaluated for grading; thereby students do not work hard towards its improvement.

Q: How do you rate yourself in the following subskills?

Question number 13 used the scale with the values from 5 to 1 where 5 = very good, 4 = good, 3 = average, 2 = poor, 1 = very poor. It investigated students' ability in various subskills such as pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Table 3.3 reveals the mean of students' opinion.

Table 3.3 Proficiency of Students in Various Subskills

Subskill	Number of respondents	Mean
Pronunciation	100	3.12
Vocabulary	100	3.38
Grammar	100	3.47

A large number of respondents (51%) opted against the category 'average' when asked about their efficiency in grammar. Another 45% (7%=very good and 38%= good) responded that they were quite satisfied with it. 3% of them felt that their grammar is poor while 1% of them admitted that they are very poor in this skill. The pictorial depiction for the opinions on grammar is given in Fig. 3.19.

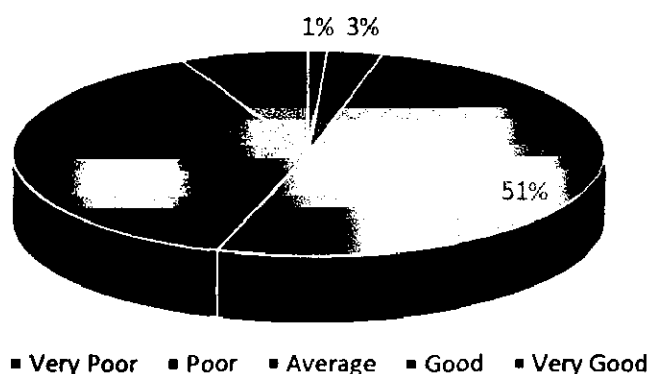


Fig. 3.19. Proficiency of respondents in grammar

The value of mean for the variable ‘vocabulary’ shows that informants’ opinion was ‘average’ (mean score is 3.38 which is near to the rank scale 3, meaning ‘average’). 49% of the respondents felt that their vocabulary is average while 42% (37%= good and 5%=very good) of them felt that they are quite efficient in this skill. Only 9% of them said that their vocabulary is poor. The chart below gives the gist of frequencies obtained for this option.

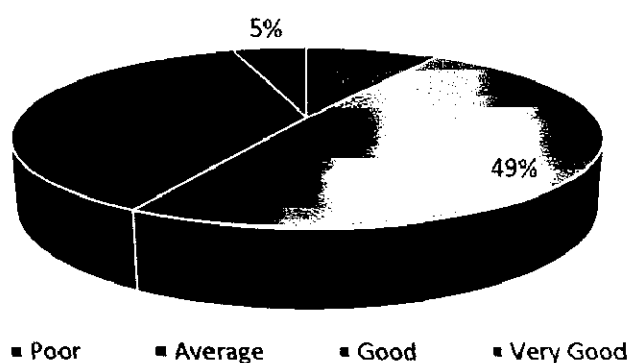


Fig. 3.20. Proficiency of respondents in vocabulary

The subskill pronunciation has the mean of 3.09. This value is quite close to the rank scale 3 which stands for ‘average’. Therefore, most of the respondents admitted to have an average pronunciation. While 45% (10%=very good and 35%= good) of the respondents claimed that they are well versed in this skill, the other 23% of them believed that their pronunciation is average. Rest 32% (14%=very poor and 18%=poor) stated that their pronunciation is not up to the mark. Fig. 3.21 given below illustrates the above data more clearly.

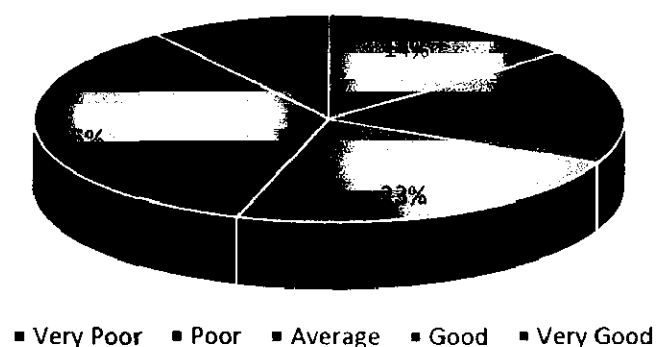


Fig. 3.21. Proficiency of respondents in pronunciation

It can be concluded from the findings that the respondents are quite good in grammar but their proficiency in pronunciation and vocabulary is inadequate. However, a good pronunciation and rich vocabulary are much sought after in order to be intelligible and expressive among the audience. The ease with which speakers can allocate words from their mental lexicon determines their fluency.

Q: How good are you in using English for the following purposes?

Question number 14 used the same scale as used by question number 13. It enquired about students' ability in using English for different purposes. The statistical results for this question are shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Ability of students to use English for different purposes

Purpose	Number of respondents	Mean
For writing Exams	100	4.08
For communicating with friends	100	3.59
For communicating with teachers	100	3.05
For getting job	100	2.89
For higher studies	100	3.17
For clarifying doubts in classroom	100	3.05

As shown in Table 3.4, most of the informants believed that their ability to write exams is good because mean value (4.08) is quite close to the rank scale 4 (which means 'good'). Here 28% of the informants claimed that their English is 'very good' for writing exams while 52% of them felt to have a 'good' command for the same. There were very few (20%) informants who chose the option 'average' but no one tagged themselves as poor or very poor writers. The above data has been pictorially described in Fig. 3.22.

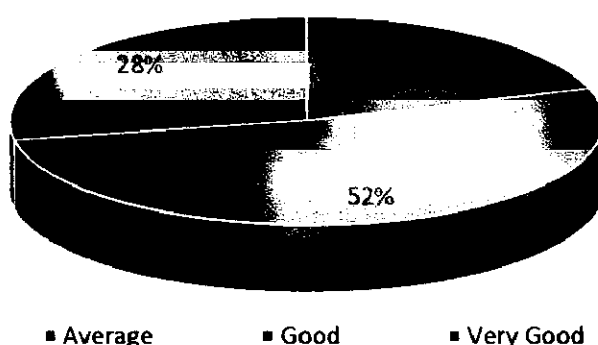


Fig. 3.22. Ability to write exams

The choice 'English for communicating with friends' has the mean of 3.59 which is equivalent to the rank scale 4. Hence, it may be said that they are good in using English with their friends. As shown in the Fig. 3.23, 44% of the sample felt that their English is good for the above mentioned purpose, while 9% opted for 'good', 44% chose the category 'average' and only 3% of them said that their ability to converse with friends in English is poor.

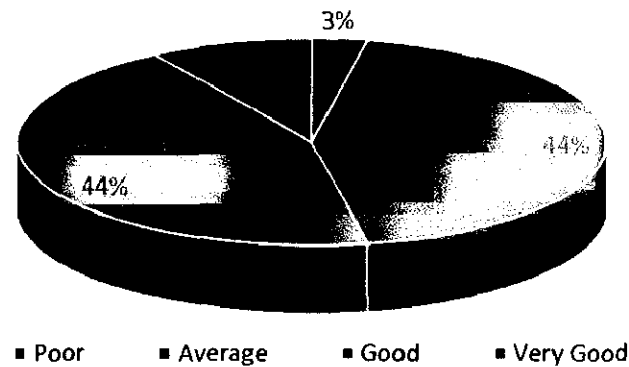


Fig. 3.23. Ability to communicate with friends

The variable 'ability to use English for higher studies' achieved the mean of 3.17. This score is very near to the rank scale 3 that stands for 'average'. As shown in Fig. 3.24, 44% of the respondents said that their capability to use English is 'average' for higher studies, 22% of them responded against the option 'good', 23% for poor and 1% for very poor. Not very large but 10% of the respondents felt that they are very good in using English for the above stated purpose.

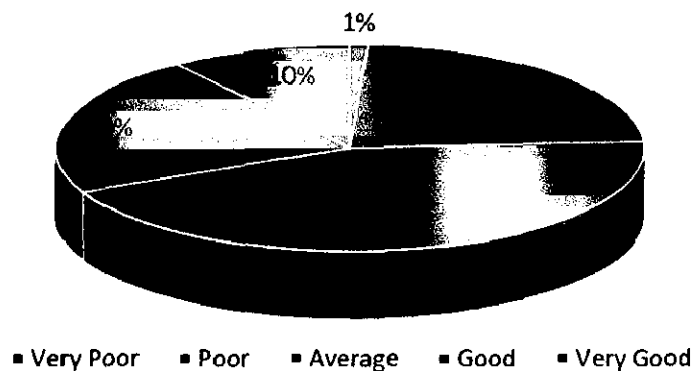


Fig. 3.24. Ability to use English for higher studies

The statistics generated the mean of 3.05 for the options 'English for communicating with teachers' and 'clarifying doubts in the classroom'. Again, this score is close to the scale 3 which implies the opinion 'average'. Half of the population said that their efficiency to use English for communicating with their respective teachers is average,

26% marked their ability as good and 23% of them believed that their English for conversing with teachers is poor. It can be seen in the Fig. 3.25 that only 1% believed themselves to be very good at communicating with their teachers in English.

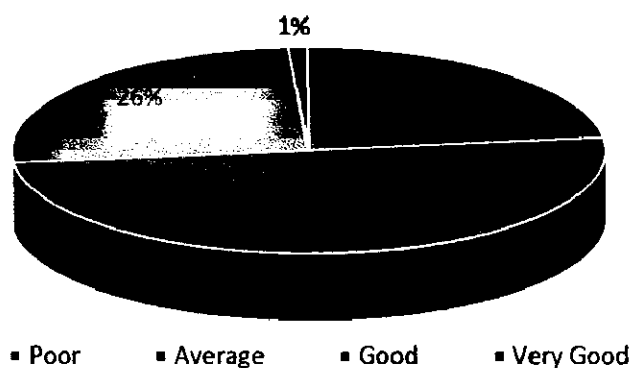


Fig. 3.25. Ability to communicate with teachers

For the variable 'clarifying doubts in the classroom', 41% marked themselves as average, 26% as good and 4% of them as very good. There was no one who selected the option 'very poor' but 29% of them stated that they are 'poor' in using English to clarify doubts in the classroom. Fig. 3.26 represents the stated data.

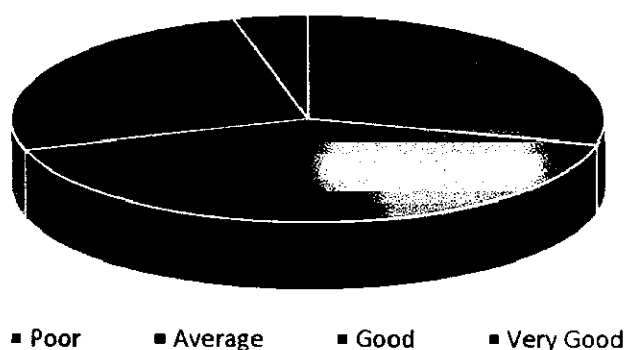


Fig. 3.26. Ability to clarify doubts in the classroom

The mean of 2.89 is obtained for the variable 'for getting a job'. Since, this value is closer to the rank scale 3, it can be said that they may face employment difficulties

because of average speaking skill. As depicted in the Fig. 3.27, 28% of the informants responded against the option average, 17% said that their ability in regard to this variable is good and 9% felt their capability to use English for getting a job as very good. However, the majority 46% of them marked the category poor.



Fig. 3.27. Ability to use English for getting job

The findings for this question revealed that students are confined to use English to meet their academic needs only. Majority of the respondents believed that their ability to use English for writing exams is good, because the reason for this might be that they are memorizing the answers and reproducing them in their exams. As a result, they get good marks which give them the perception that they are good in English. Secondly, writing skill has always been given more importance than the other skills. Further, the respondents believed that their English speech is proficient while communicating with friends. As they are least concerned about being criticized from their friends, they use English fearlessly with them and their confidence remains at ease. A good number of students mark their ability to use English 'for communicating with teachers' and 'for clarifying doubts in the classroom' as average because they might be nervous to converse in academic settings. They might have the notion that perfection in English speech is desired here, hence they refrain from speaking. Students admitted that they

are least proficient in using English for getting a job. Since they have insufficient exposure and training in English in their academic life, their speaking skill suffers leading to face the situation of unemployment.

3.2.6.3 Correlation between Fluency and other Subskills

In this section the relation between fluency of the students and their subskills is established. Table-3.4 is indicative of the correlation between fluency and subskills. Correlation coefficient (r) for pronunciation ($r = 0.538$), vocabulary ($r = 0.393$) and grammar ($r = 0.286$) exhibits that they are positively related with fluency and statistically significant also. The correlation between fluency and pronunciation is highly significant but that between fluency and grammar is a weak one. The subskill vocabulary is neither too strongly nor too weakly correlated with fluency. Therefore, it can be said that vocabulary and pronunciation should be given due importance in order to develop fluency in UG students at AMU.

Table 3.5 Correlations between fluency and other subskills

		Fluency	Pronunciation	Vocabulary	Grammar
Fluency	Pearson Correlation (r)	1	.538**	.393**	.286**
	Significance (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.004
	N	100	100	100	100
Pronunciation	Pearson Correlation (r)	.538**	1	.399**	.331**
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.001
	N	100	100	100	100
Vocabulary	Pearson Correlation (r)	.393**	.399**	1	.647**
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	100	100	100.000	100
Grammar	Pearson Correlation (r)	.286**	.331**	.647**	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	.004	.001	.000	
	N	100	100	100	100
**Correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

3.2.6.4 Analysis of the Third Section of the Questionnaire (Section- C)

This section investigated the motivation among students to use language in different domains and found out whether the motivation to learn English is integrative or instrumental for them. It also tried to find the source of motivation for students from different fraternities. There were two questions for this section. All questions followed the Likert scale format.

Q: How much do you agree that your desire for learning English is because of the following reasons?

Question no.15 used the scale which had a sliding value from 5 to 1 (5= Strongly Agree [SA], 4=Somewhat Agree [SWA], 3=Neutral [N], 2=Somewhat Disagree [SWDA], 1=Strongly Disagree [SDA]). It tried to seek students' motivation to use English for different purposes.

Table 3.6 Motivation to use language for different purposes

Variables	Strongly Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neutral	Somewhat Disagree	Strongly Disagree
To communicate with native speakers	17	33	32	13	5
To communicate with foreigners	50	29	16	5	Nil
To interact in English with friends	26	35	22	13	4
To speak English out of the campus also	20	32	20	25	3
To get a good job	73	21	6	Nil	Nil
To pass exams	55	40	5	Nil	Nil
For higher studies	67	29	4	Nil	Nil

Table-3.6 shows the responses of the informants against various sources of motivation. They were asked about their opinions on seven statements which were framed to know whether the motivation of the students to learn English is integrative or instrumental.

The most motivating situation felt by the students is to get a good job. The above chart shows that 73% of the respondents strongly felt that they need to speak English fluently in order to get a job. While 21% also agreed on it, 6% responded that they were not very sure whether getting a job is the motivation for them to learn English.

A majority of the sample (67%=SA and 29%=SWA) had a view that they wanted to learn English for higher studies. Only 4% had a neutral opinion about this issue.

Another large group of respondents (55%=SA and 40%=SWA) admitted that passing the exams motivate them to learn English. Out of the seven statements, the option 'to speak English out of the campus' was the least favoured by the informants. Only 20% respondents strongly agreed for this choice and 32% somewhat agreed on it. The rest had either the neutral view (20%), or somewhat disagreed on it (25%) or strongly disagreed on it (3%). The students had not a very positive attitude towards the statements 'to communicate with native speakers'(17%=SA, 33%=SWA, 32%=N,13%=SWDA and 5%=SDA), 'to interact in English with friends'(26%=SA, 35%=SWA, 22%=N, 13%=SWDA and 4%=SDA) and 'to communicate with foreigners' (50%=SA, 29%=SWA, 16%=N and 5%=SWDA).

Table 3.7. Mean of students' motivation to use language for different purposes

Purpose	Number of respondents	Mean
(a) To communicate with native speakers	100	3.44
(b) To communicate with foreigners	100	4.24
(c) To interact in English with friends	100	3.66
(d) To speak English out of the campus also	100	3.41
(e) To get a good job	100	4.67
(f) To pass exams	100	4.50
(g) For higher studies	100	4.63
(h) Integrative motivation (INTGM)	100	3.69
(i) Instrumental motivation (INSTM)	100	4.60

The findings can be interpretive in a way that statements *a, b, c* and *d* fell under integrative motivation, while *e, f* and *g* intended to know the instrumental motivation of the students. The mean of opinions (as shown in Table 3.7) for the integrative (INTGM) and instrumental (INSTM) motivations were computed for each student with the help of the software used in this research. The resultant mean for the above two motivations (Mean for INTGM=3.69 and for INSTM=4.60) indicates that instrumental motivation dominated over the integrative one as the value of mean for INSTM is near to the rank scale 5 (strongly agree). However, integrative motivation is the most needed one in order to develop fluency. Those who are integrally motivated are also motivated instrumentally. Hence, the importance attached mostly to the instrumental motivation by the respondents can be assumed as one of the reasons for not being fluent in speaking.

Q: How often do you get motivation from the following persons to speak English?

Question number 16 has used the Likert scale that ranged from 5 to 1 (5=Always, 4=Often, 3=Sometimes, 2=Rarely and 1=Never). It figured out the motivation for students to talk in English from different social class.

Table 3.8. Motivation from different social class to use English

Social Class	Number of Respondents	Mean
Teachers	100	4.04
Classmates	100	3.21
Friends	100	3.52
Parents	100	2.99
Native Speakers	100	3.07

The social class 'teachers' received the mean of 4.04, indicating that most of the respondents are 'often' motivated by their teachers. As shown in Fig. 3.28, 48% said that they are always motivated by their teachers, 22% went for the option often in this

regard, 21% agreed with sometimes, 4% with rarely while 5% claimed that they never get motivated by their teachers.

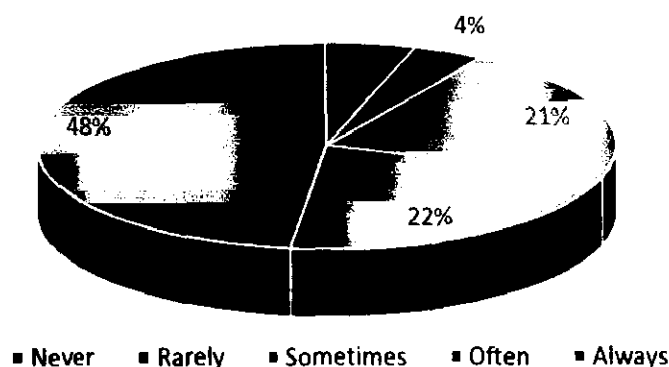


Fig. 3.28 Motivation from teachers to speak English

The option 'friends' obtained the mean of 3.52 revealing that friends also influence the respondents to speak English (mean value is near to the rank scale 4 that means 'often'). As shown in Fig. 3.29, 20% of the informants agreed that their friends motivate them to speak English always; while 29% said often, 37% said sometimes, 11% told rarely and 3% said never.

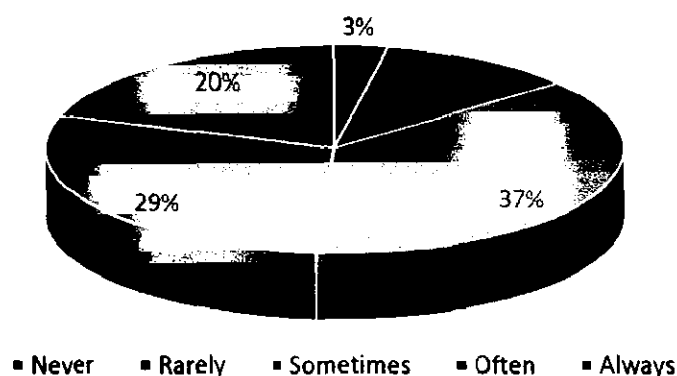


Fig. 3.29 Motivation from friends to speak English

For the option 'classmates' the mean is 3.21 which is quite close to the rank scale 3 (stands for 'some times'). Hence, it is evident that respondents are sometimes motivated by the classmates also. It can be seen in Fig. 3.30, that 16% of the sample

get inspiration from their classmates 'always', 19% 'often', 41% 'sometimes', 18% 'rarely', while 6% of them 'never' get inspired by their classmates.

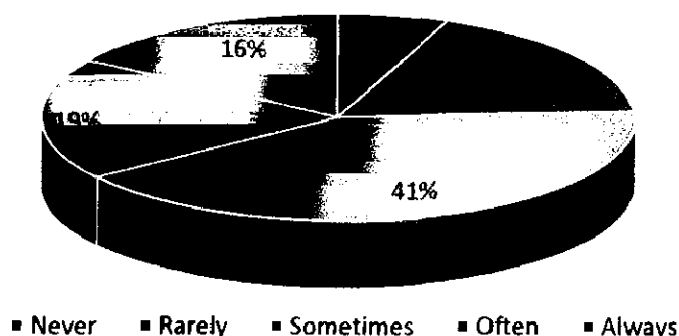


Fig. 3.30 Motivation from classmates to speak English

The resultant mean for 'native speakers' is 3.07 (quite close to rank scale 3). Thus, it may be said that informants are sometimes motivated by the native speakers to speak English. As shown in Fig. 3.31, only 13% of the study sample said that they are always motivated by the native speakers. Another group of students (27%) marked against the category 'often', 27% said 'sometimes', 20% went with 'rarely' and 13% said that native speakers never inspire them to speak English.

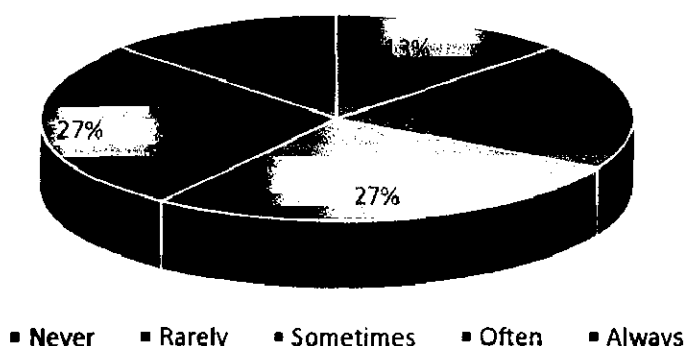


Fig. 3.31 Motivation from native speakers to speak English

As per the Table-3.8, parents also motivate the respondents sometimes to speak English as indicated by the mean value 2.99 (close to the rank scale 3). A fair number

of the respondents (26%) get motivated by their parents 'always', 16% 'often' and 14% 'sometimes'. Another 19% of the group opted for 'rarely' while 25% said that they are never motivated by their parents. The pie-chart for the above data is shown in Fig. 3.32.

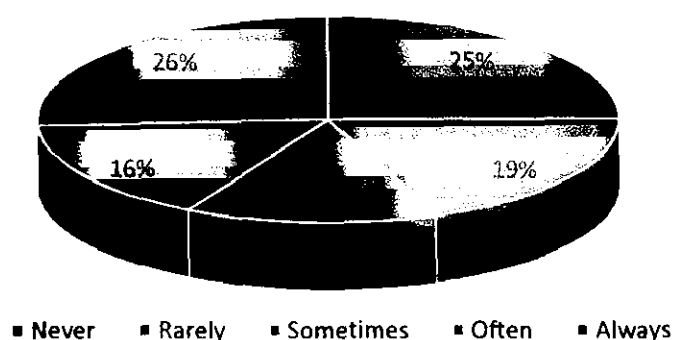


Fig. 3.32 Motivation from parents to speak English

Thus, it can be said that the highest source of motivation is from the social class that belong to academics (teachers, friends and classmates). This may be because outside the campus they hardly have any exposure to the language. In the world outside the campus, the students seldom encounter the situation or any social class which urge them to talk in English. As the result has shown that the respondents are highly inspired in their academics only, therefore they must be trained to develop oral fluency here itself. Only this situation can create an environment conducive to develop their fluency.

3.2.6.5 Analysis of the Fourth Section of the Questionnaire (Section- D)

This section evaluated the anxiety level of the students and the nature of problems they face while speaking English. It included two questions which followed the Likert scale format.

Q: Given below are some statements. How far do you agree with each of them?

Question number 17 was designed to find the level of anxiety among the respondents when they are learning English. This question used the scale of values sliding from 5 to 1 where 5 = Strongly agree (SA), 4 = Somewhat agree (SWA), 3 = Neutral(N), 2 = Somewhat disagree (SWDA), 1 = Strongly disagree (SDA).

Table 3.9. Level of anxiety among students

Variables	Number of Respondents	Mean
Avoid eye contact with the teacher for the fear of being asked to answer questions in English	100	3.18
You do not raise your hand to answer ever if you know it	100	3.26
You do not speak because you feel embarassed if you make mistakes	100	3.51
While speaking English you feel so nervous that you forget the actual message to be conveyed	100	3.14
Fear of being corrected or interrupted by the teacher	100	3.00
You are not confident while speaking English	100	3.37
Fear of being laughed at when you speak English	100	3.37
Anxiety level	100	3.26

According to Table-3.9, the reason ‘feel embarrassed upon making mistakes’ got the mean of 3.51 (value close to the rank scale 4, meaning ‘somewhat agree’). Thus, respondents somewhat agreed that they fear to speak English because of the reason stated above. Majority of the respondents (SA=20% and SWA=41%) reacted positively towards this issue, while 39% (N=17%, SWDA=19% and SDA=8%) did not agree much for the same. Fig. 3.3 shows the various opinion of the study sample for this variable.

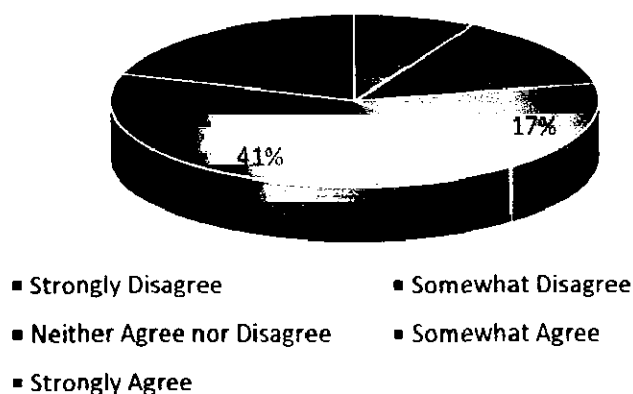


Fig. 3.33 Feel embarrassed upon making any mistake while speaking

The variables ‘you are not confident while speaking English’ and ‘fear of being laughed at when you speak English’ have the mean 3.37. This score is close to the scale 3 which stands for ‘neutral’. It indicates that they neither agreed nor disagreed with the above stated reasons that inhibit them to speak English. In this study, 49% (SA= 17% and SWA=32%) admitted that they are not confident enough to speak English. The other 51% (N=27%, SWDA=19% and SDA=5%) seemed to have confidence while speaking English. The pictorial depiction for this option is presented in Fig. 3.34.

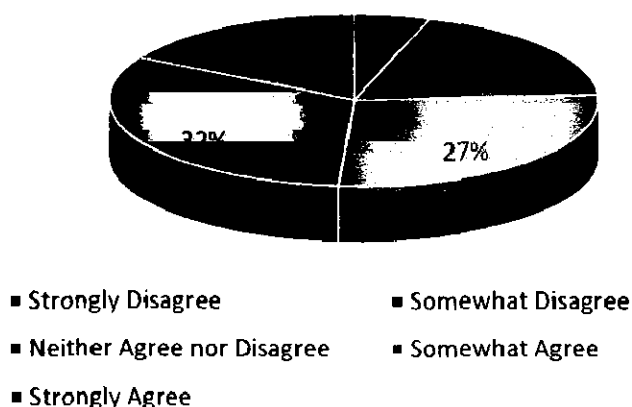


Fig. 3.34 Lack of confidence while speaking English

A good number of study sample (SA=33% and SWA=16%) believed that they did not speak English as they fear of being laughed at by others. Rest 51% (N= 21%, SWDA=15% and SDA=15%) did not have such kind of fear as shown in Fig. 3.35.

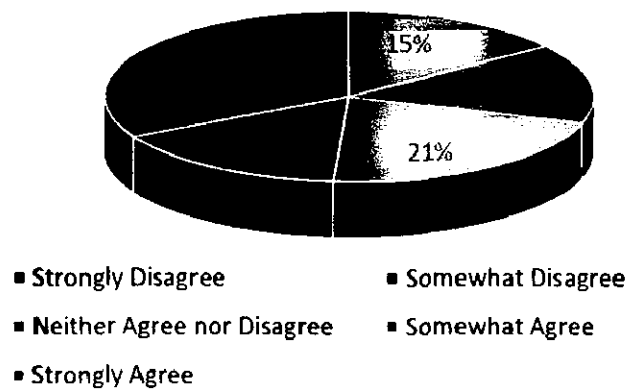


Fig. 3.35 Fear of being laughed at

Another variable 'you do not raise your hand to answer even if you know it' obtained the mean of 3.26. This is again very close to the scale 3 which means that informants had neutral view on this reason too. For this option, 47% (SA=16% and SWA=31%) of the respondents had the view that they do not participate actively in the classroom even if they know the answers of the questions put up by the teachers. Remaining 53% of the sample (N=30%, SWDA=9% and SDA=14%) said that they do not agree with the above statement much. The above data is represented in Fig. 3.36.

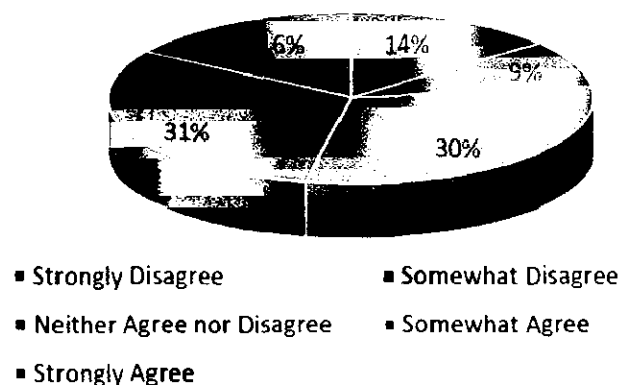


Fig. 3.36 Avoid raising hands to answer even if the answer is known

Fig. 3.37 depicts that avoiding eye contact with the teachers is also a prevalent practice in order to ignore speaking in the classroom for many of the respondents. 45% of the informants said that they prefer to keep themselves away from the teacher's attention (SA=14%, and SWA=31%) and another 55% of the sample (N=29%, SWDA= 11% and SDA=15 %) did not respond positive for this option.

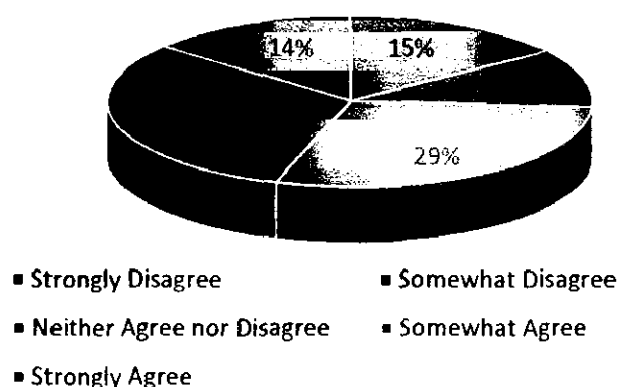


Fig. 3.37 Avoid eye contact with the teachers

The next variable 'while speaking English you feel so nervous that you forget the actual message to convey' was not so much agreed upon by the informants. Fig. 3.38 shows that only 39% (SA=20% and SWA=19%) favoured this statement, while 61% (N=32%, SWDA=13% and SDA=16%) did not favour it much.

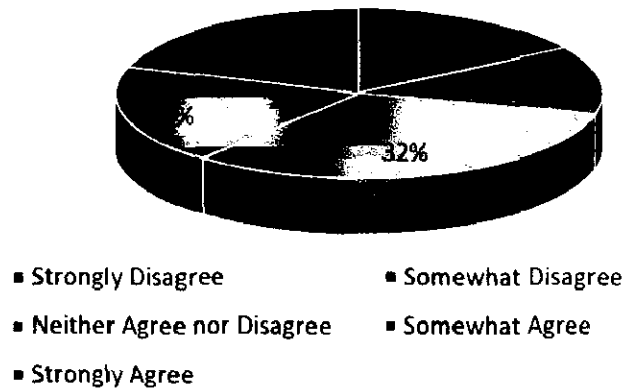


Fig 3.38 Forget the actual message due to nervousness

Majority of the students admitted that fear of being corrected by teachers hardly affects their English speech (SA=11%, SWA=20%, N= 43%, SWDA=10% and SDA=16%). The Fig. 3.39 represents the result for this query.

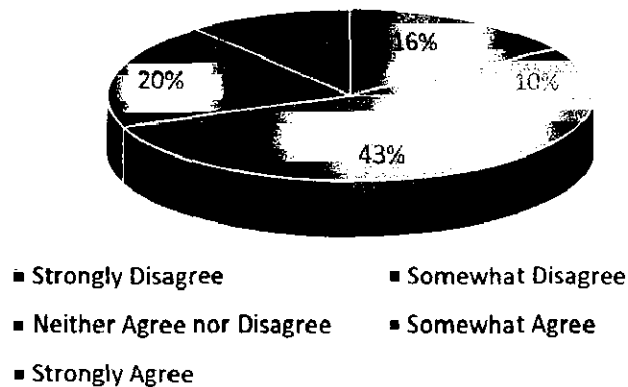


Fig. 3.39 Fear of being corrected by teachers

A new variable, i.e. anxiety level, was calculated by obtaining the mean of all the variables. The resultant mean (3.26) showed that the students are anxious learners to an extent. In order to lessen their anxiety, it is important to make them understand that perfection or native-like fluency/accent is not required when they are speaking. The result revealed that a vast number of students are afraid of making mistakes while speaking. Therefore, they should be made aware of the fact that making errors is a sign of learning.

Q: How much do you agree with the fact that the following factors cause problems when you speak English?

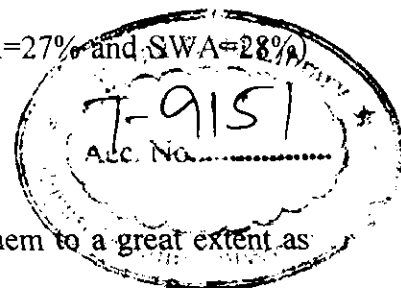
Question number 18 used the same scale as used by the previous question. This question tried to find out the nature of problems students face while speaking. There were seven statements against which they had to respond using the scale framed for the question.

Table 3.10. Nature of problems during speaking

Variables	Number of respondents	Mean
Correcting errors in your speech while speaking	100	3.47
Pausing a lot while speaking	100	3.40
Unable to use appropriate word(s) to convey your message because you do not know it/them.	100	3.50
Unable to use appropriate word(s) to convey your message even if you know it/them.	100	3.43
Unable to speak correct sentence(s) because your grammar is poor	100	2.79

Table-3.10 shows the mean obtained by various variables of this question. A good number of respondents mentioned that they are unable to use appropriate words to express themselves because they do not know them. 55% (SA=27% and SWA=28%) of them marked this variable as the problematic one.

Correcting errors while speaking tend to cause problem for them to a great extent as 55% (SA=23% and SWA=32%) of the informants positively indicated that correcting the errors by self is a hurdle in gaining fluency in speech. The speech of the remaining 45% (N=23%, SWDA=13% and SDA=9%) hardly suffered because of this factor. In the next variable, 55% (SA=27% and SWA=28%) said that despite knowing the word(s) to convey their message, they are unable to use them. However, 45% (N=15%, SWDA=21% and SDA=9%) did not agree upon much on this issue.



Pausing while speaking is also a hindrance for many of them. 30% of the sample somewhat agreed and 20% strongly agreed on this statement. However, 23% had a neutral opinion towards this factor and 24% (SWDA= 15% and SDA=9%) did not think that pausing while speaking cause any problem for them.

Majority of students (N=23%, SWDA=28% and SDA=18%) did not favour the statement 'unable to speak correct sentence(s) because your grammar is poor' while rest of the 31% (SA= 12% and SWA= 19%) agreed upon this.

It can be said that insufficient vocabulary is a major issue because of which the fluency in speech of the respondents suffered. Besides this, the problem of retrieving the vocabulary from their memory also seems to be a problematic area. The reason for this may be that they may not be using the language frequently. Thus, the limited use of language made them unable to recollect the needed vocabulary when they have to perform in the target language situation.

Self-monitoring of the errors has also affected them. But they might not be aware of the fact that a moderate amount of repair and reformulation while speaking are the features of a fluent speech. However, excessive of these features hampers the speech. Respondents considered the phenomenon of pausing as a hindrance in maintaining fluency in speech. It might be that they were making long pauses in between the sentences. But a short pause and a pause between clauses are permissible. Thus, a little awareness on the concept of pausing and self-monitoring may make them confident to speak fluently. The grammar does not seem to cause much hindrance for them. Hence, it is expected that practice with the help of guided and free activities may improve their oral fluency.

3.2.6.6 Correlation between Fluency and Affective Variables

Table-3.11 shows that the correlation between fluency and mean anxiety (mean of all the variables of question number 7) is -0.590. The negative sign before the value of correlation coefficient, i.e. r , indicates that the two variables are inversely related to each other. This result is statistically highly significant as $p = 0.000$. Thus if a student is anxious, his/her fluency in speech has suffered. Fluency is also positively correlated with integrative and instrumental motivation. Therefore, it can be said that those who were integratively motivated spoke English fluently as the value of $r = 0.205$ and the value of p indicates that the result is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. But it cannot be said for those who were instrumentally motivated as the value of p is statistically insignificant.

Table 3.11. Correlation between fluency and affective variables

		Fluency	Mean Anxiety	Integrative motivation	Instrumental motivation
Fluency	Pearson Correlation (r)	1	-0.590**	0.205*	0.107
	Sig. (2-tailed), p		.000	0.040	0.289
	N	100	100	100	100
Mean Anxiety	Pearson Correlation (r)	-0.590**	1	-0.273**	-0.158
	Sig. (2-tailed), p	.000		0.006	0.116
	N	100	100	100	100
Integrative motivation	Pearson Correlation (r)	0.205*	-0.273**	1	0.376**
	Sig. (2-tailed), p	0.040	0.006		.000
	N	100	100	100	100
Instrumental motivation	Pearson Correlation (r)	0.107	-0.158	0.376**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed), p	0.289	0.116	.000	
	N	100	100	100	100
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

3.2.6.7 Analysis of the Fifth Section of the Questionnaire (Section- E)

Section-E of the questionnaire was designed to elicit from the respondents the strategies that they adopt while facing problem and the practices they follow to improve their oral proficiency. It also had two questions. Again all questions followed the Likert scale.

Q: Rate the frequency of using the following strategies when you do not get the exact word(s)/sentence(s) to convey your message.

Question number 19 looked at the attitude of the informants towards the different kinds of communication strategies. It included seven statements. The Likert scale 5= frequently, 4= often, 3=sometimes, 2=rarely and 1=never was followed for this query.

Table 3.12. Communication strategies used by the respondents

Strategies	Number of Respondents	Mean
Repeat the word/sentence already said, several times	100	3.28
Use mother tongue equivalents for that word/sentence	100	3.11
Seek help from your listener to name that word	100	2.94
Move on by avoiding that word/sentence	100	2.93
Remain silent for a long time because you keep on thinking for that word/sentence	100	3.46

The variable 'remain silent for a long time because you keep on thinking for that word/sentence' has the mean of 3.46 as can be seen from Table-3.12. This score is near to the scale 3 which was coded for the opinion 'neutral'. This suggests that remaining silent was viewed as 'neutral' option when the informants encountered communication breakdown. 55% (frequently=29% and often=26%) of the sample said that they prefer to remain silent when they sense communication breakdown. Another

15% (sometimes=22%, rarely=8% and never=15%) did not use this strategy much.

The obtained data for this option is shown in Fig. 3.40.

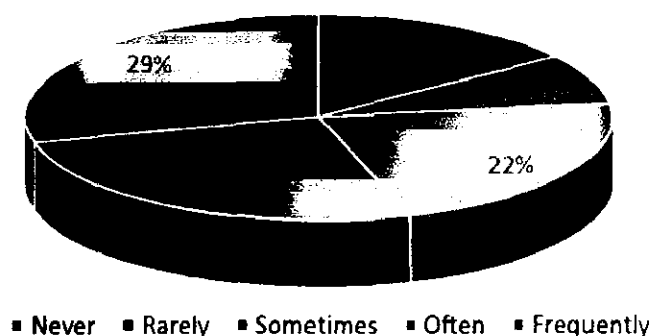


Fig. 3.40 Remain silent for a long time

The other strategy 'repetition of words/ sentences that had already been said for several times' exhibits the following frequencies: 17% of the respondents frequently used it, 23% 'often', 37% 'sometimes', 17% 'rarely' and 6% 'never' used this.

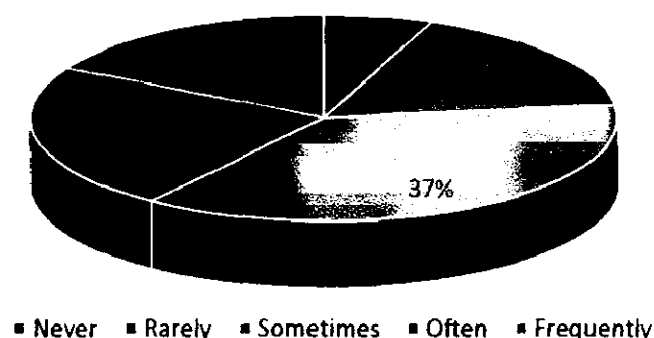


Fig. 3.41 Repeat word(s)/ sentence(s) several times

Use of mother tongue equivalents is also a dominant strategy to an extent. It was found that 41% (frequently=16% and often=25%) of the respondents use their mother tongue equivalents for the target language words/sentences. The remaining 59% (sometimes=28%, rarely=16% and never=15%) did not or hardly adopted this strategy.

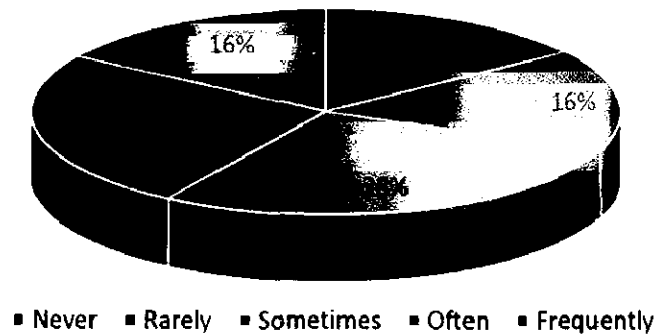


Fig. 3.42 Use of mother tongue equivalents

Seeking help from the listeners is not a much preferred strategy among the informants. As shown in Fig. 3.43, 30% (frequently=10% and often=20%) responded that they used this strategy either frequently or often. But 70% (sometimes=37%, rarely=20% and never=13%) did not mark it as a desirable strategy to be adopted when communication is about to fail.

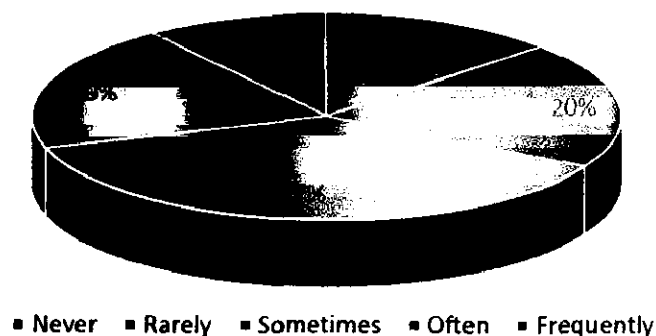


Fig. 3.43 Seek help from the listeners

A handful of respondents used the strategy of avoidance during the communication breakdown. Only 35% (frequently=9% and often=26%) viewed this in positive light, while the others did not like to use this strategy. The resultant percentage can be seen in Fig. 3.44.

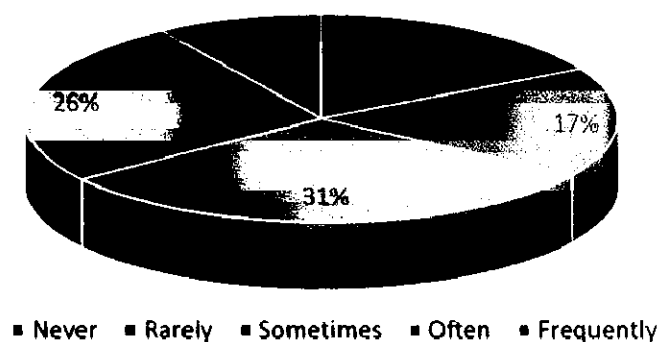


Fig. 3.44 Strategy of avoidance

Thus from the findings, it can be concluded that majority of them adopted the strategy of remaining silent when they encountered breakdown in communication. The other strategies of repetition, code mixing, seeking help from listeners and avoidance do not seem to be widely prevalent among the respondents. Nevertheless, the development of strategic competence is very important in order to perform fluently in the language. Mastery in the use of strategic skills tends to bridge gaps in linguistic competence. The next chapter (chapter-4) would deal with the strategies that may work while teaching oral fluency.

Q: How often do you practice the following habits to improve your speaking ability in English?

Question number 20 used the scale of values ranging from 5 to 1 where 5 = Always, 4 = Often, 3 = Sometimes, 2 = Rarely and 1 = Never. It tried to elicit the responses from the informants regarding the practices they adopt to improve their fluency in English speech.

Table-3.13 shows the frequency of responses. As per the Table-3.13, the dominant practice to improve English speech was to read English newspapers/magazines (39% always read English newspapers/magazines). It is followed by talking in English with

teachers (25% always adopted this practice), and another practice in which the students were always involved was reading English novels and short stories (19% always preferred this activity). The table indicates that informants hardly talk in English with their friends and classmates, or watch English programmes or listen to English news. Only 8% of them talked with their friends in English always while 4% always used English while communicating with classmates. The other 25% and 30% said that they rarely listen to English news channels and watch English programme respectively. Listening to English channels (16% never listen to English channels) and watching English programmes (13% never watch English programmes) were the least preferred practice by the respondents.

Table 3.13: Practices followed by the respondents to improve fluency in English

Variables	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Read English newspapers/ magazines	39	35	20	5	1
Read English novel/short stories	19	31	34	12	4
Talk in English with friends	8	25	58	7	2
Talk in English with classmates	4	24	52	18	2
Talk in English with teachers	25	24	33	15	3
Listen to English news channels, like BBC, etc.	9	22	28	25	16
Watch English programs	16	17	24	30	13

It is evident from the findings that students hardly use English for the purpose of entertainment, i.e. listening to English news channels or watching English programs. Audio and visual aids contribute a lot in the fluency development, the reason being that the learners are exposed to the use of non-verbal communication (body language and paralinguistic features) and the various tones that affect meaning of an utterance. Reading newspaper, magazines, short stories, novels and talking in English with teachers were quite prevalent among the respondents. Thus, the use of English just to

meet some needs and not out of interest may be a reason which has affected their English speech.

3.3 Conclusion

The findings are evident of the fact that fluency in speech has suffered because of anxiety and lack of motivation among the students. Also, their pronunciation, vocabulary, the kinds of strategies they adopt to overcome communication breakdown and the practices followed by them have some effect on their fluency. Thus, in order to develop fluency, the activities and strategies are suggested in the following chapters which will take care of motivation and anxiety of the learners.

This chapter has presented, analysed and interpreted the data obtained from survey. The main concern of this chapter is to give detailed facts about the data collected through the survey. The relevance and the outcomes of administering the questionnaire are discussed. Extensive information about the respondents' background has been provided here. The chapter also delves into the reasons that make students non fluent speakers of English.

Chapter 4

Strategies to Develop Oral Fluency

4.1 Introduction

Fluency development does not require extensive practice of grammar and lexis but also takes into account teaching of many strategies. The following view by Campbell-Larsen (2012) encapsulates the rationale behind this chapter.

The view of fluency presented here is that certain linguistic behaviours enhance perceptions of fluency and certain other behaviours enhance perceptions of disfluency. Students can be made aware of these behaviours by overt teaching and must then be given extensive and repeated opportunity to engage in extended discourse using English. (p. 65)

Hence some of the strategies that can develop oral fluency of UG ESL learners at AMU have been discussed in this chapter.

4.2 Teaching Theoretical Perspectives of Phonetics

Teaching of phonetics is essential because it is the tool that aids in building the hierarchical structure of linguistic units, that is speech sounds lead to morphemes and morphemes to words, words to phrases, phrases to clauses, clauses to sentences and sentences to texts. According to McCarthy (1991), the teaching of pronunciation has not given much attention to establish the connection between the articulation of phonemes and the characteristics of connected speech. Citing Pennington and Richards, McCarthy (1991) says that pronunciation teaching deals with three elements which are as follows:

- Segmental feature: It deals with features that lead to the articulation of the speech.

- Voice-setting feature: It discusses the aspects of voicing of speech sounds.
- Prosodic feature: It is concerned with stress and intonation pattern in speech.

(p.90)

The efficiency in the above features is very important in order to communicate with ease. A sound knowledge of phonetics helps one to overcome the discrepancy between sounds and spellings. It also helps to differentiate between sounds which cause interference in learning the second language. For example Southern Chinese speakers are unable to distinguish between the sounds /r/ and /l/. For many of them these two phonemes sound the same but in English these two sounds are distinct (Bloomer, Griffiths & Merrison, 2005).

4.2.1 The Organs of Speech

There are various organs of speech which help to produce the speech sounds. Hence, it is important to learn about the different organs of speech and the structure of the vocal tract. The vocal tract extends from the lungs to the mouth and comprises of the lips (upper and lower), teeth, alveolar ridge, oral cavity, nasal cavity, tongue, hard palate, uvula, epiglottis, larynx and the lungs. The tongue is further divided into five parts which are as follow:

- The tip which is the front most part of it.
- The blade which lies below the alveolar ridge when the tongue is not in motion.
- The front which is below the hard palate when the tongue is not moving.
- The back which is below the soft palate when the tongue does not move.
- The root is backward facing the wall of pharynx.

(Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p. 35-6)

In the production of various speech sounds, some organs are active articulators while some remain passive. Active articulators are those which move in the direction of the passive articulators in the production of speech sounds while the passive ones are those which are at rest.

4.2.2 Air Stream Mechanism

Air stream mechanism also plays a very important role in speech production. Initiation and articulation are the two fundamental elements in speech (Bloomer et al., 2005). The authors explain that initiation creates airstream and the articulation patterns the airstream to produce speech sounds. The initiation for most of the speech sounds are from the lungs (pulmonic) and the air flow is towards the outwards direction (egressive). Thus, speech sounds are mostly articulated by pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism. There are other kinds of air stream such as glottalic and velaric where the glottis and velum are closed and the direction of air flow is either inwards (ingressive) or outwards (egressive). These kinds of air stream cause difficulty in speech production, therefore most of the languages in the world make use of pulmonic egressive air stream mechanism.

4.2.3 Speech Sounds in English

There are forty four speech sounds in the “Received Pronunciation (RP) variety of English” (Bloomer et al., 2005, p.230). Out of these, there are twenty four consonants and twenty vowels.

4.2.3.1 Consonant

Consonants are those speech sounds articulated by impeding the air flow in the vocal tract. According to Jones (1998), consonant sounds are described as:

- All breathed sounds

- All voiced sounds formed by means of obstruction in the mouth
- All those in which there is a narrowing of the air passage giving rise to a frictional noise, and
- Certain sounds are gliding.

(Jones, 1998, p.12)

Consonants are generally defined in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and phonation (voiced or voiceless).

4.2.3.1.1 Phonation

Vocal folds that lie in the larynx have a significant role in the production of speech. The opening between the vocal folds is known as the glottis. There are four states of glottis which influence the voicing of the speech sounds. These are as follow:

- a) Open state: In this state vocal folds are held apart allowing air to pass freely through them without any vibration. This state helps in the articulation of voiceless speech sounds.
- b) Vibrating state: Here vocal folds vibrate when air passes through them. In this state, voiced sounds are produced.
- c) Narrowed state: This state neither allows the vocal cords to meet nor to vibrate. This state produces whisper sound.
- d) Closed state: Here vocal folds are allowed to meet in a way that does not allow air to pass through it. Hiccups, cough and glottal stops are produced in this state.

4.2.3.1.2 Places of Articulation

Supralaryngeal is the area which is above the larynx and consists of three parts:

- The pharynx

- The oral cavity
- The nasal cavity

Bloomer et al. (2005) say that larynx is related with phonation while the supralaryngeal area is related with the places of articulation. Given below is the classification of speech sounds on the basis of various places of articulation as mentioned by Ashby & Maidment (2005).

- Bilabial: Active articulators for these sounds are the upper and the lower lips. Both the lips are in firm contact with each other during the production of bilabial sounds. Example, English sounds /p, b, m, w / are bilabials.
- Labiodental: Here lower lip is the active articulator and the upper front teeth are the passive one. The articulators are not in firm contact which allows the air to escape through them freely. /f/ & /v/ are the English labiodentals sounds.
- Dental: The active articulator is the tip of the tongue and the upper front teeth are the passive one. /θ/ & /ð/ are the English dental sounds.
- Alveolar- The tip or the blade of the tongue is the active articulator and the alveolar ridge is the passive articulator. English sounds /t, d, l, n, s, z / are the alveolars.
- Post-alveolar: Here the tongue's tip is the active articulator and back of the teeth ridge is the passive one. /r/ sound in English is postalveolar.
- Retroflex: The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and is curled back to touch either the teeth ridge or the hard palate. These sounds are mostly used in Indian languages and are articulated by the speakers of English from those areas.

- Palato-alveolar: The blade of the tongue is the active articulator and the teeth ridge or the hard palate is the passive one. /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/ are the palato alveolar sounds in English.
- Palatal: The front of the tongue is the active articulator and the hard palate is the passive articulator. /j/ is the palatal English sounds.
- Velar: The active articulator is the back of the tongue while the soft palate is the passive one. /k/, /g/, /ŋ/ are the velar sounds in English.
- Uvular: The back of the tongue is the active articulator and the uvula is the passive articulator. Uvular sounds do not occur in English. These are found in the Arabic language. Sounds like /q/ and /G/ are equivalent to English sounds /k/ and /g/, respectively.
- Glottal: The vocal folds are the active articulators here. They are in close contact with each other and air from the lungs is not allowed to escape through the glottis. Sounds produced at the glottis are called the glottal stop. Many accents of English spoken in London use the glottal stop. For example, the /t/ sound in the word 'shutter' is replaced by glottal stop /ʔ/. English sound /h/ is glottal.

4.2.3.1.3 Manner of Articulation

Apart from the kinds of phonation (voiced or voiceless), places of articulation and air stream mechanism, speech sounds also differ in terms of the “variation in the degree of closure (or stricture) between articulators” (Bloomer et al., 200, p.244-45). This variation is termed as manner of articulation.

4.2.3.1.4 Degree of Stricture

As described by Ashby and Maidment (2005), there are three important degrees of stricture which are as follow:

- Closure: There is a firm contact between the articulators.
- Narrowing: The articulators are brought together but they do not touch each other.
- Approximation: The articulators are widely apart from each other.

The stricture of closure and narrowing produces obstruent sounds while the stricture of approximation produces sonorant sounds.

4.2.3.1.5 Different Manners of Articulation

The different manners of articulation are as follow:

- Stops: Stops are of two types- **plosives** and **affricates**. The articulation of stops consist of three stages:
 1. The approach stage where the articulators come in firm contact with each other and form the closure. This stage is common in plosives as well as affricates.
 2. The hold stage which allows the air from the lungs to build pressure behind the closure. This stage is followed by both the plosives and the affricates.
 3. The release stage where the air pressure formed behind the closure is either suddenly released as in plosives or slowly released with friction as in affricates. Example- English sounds /p, b, t, d, k, g / are **plosives** and /tʃ/, /dʒ/ are **affricates**.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.79)

- Fricatives: There is a partial closure between the articulators and the air passes through the narrow passage producing audible friction.

Example –English sounds /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h / . (Greenbaum, 1996)

- Nasals: The articulation of nasal sounds causes the soft palate to lower and blocks the passage of air flow from the oral cavity. The air passes through the nose during the production of nasal sounds.

Example- English sounds /m, n,ŋ/are the nasal sounds.

- Approximants: The articulators are brought close to each other but the resultant sounds do not produce audible friction. There are four kinds of approximants:

1. Lateral approximant: There is a contact between the articulators (tip of the tongue and the alveolar ridge) in centre of the vocal tract and the air escapes through the lateral passage. English sound /l/ is a lateral sound.
2. Post alveolar approximant: The tip of the tongue is moved towards the rear end of the alveolar ridge in open approximation stricture where air escapes through the articulators without any friction. English sound /r/ is a post alveolar approximant.
3. Palatal approximant: It is a glide like vowel and is known as semi vowel. English sound /j/ is palatal approximant.
4. Labial-velar approximant: It is also a glide like vowel and is called semivowel. English sound /w/ is labial-velar approximant.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.87-90)

The Table-4.1 shows the consonant sounds of English and their features.

Table 4.1: Classification of English consonants

Speech Sounds (Consonants)	Active Articulator	Passive Articulator	Place of Articulation	Manner of Articulation	Phonation	Example
/p/	Upper and lower lips	None	Bilabial	Plosive	Voiceless	<u>P</u> age
/b/	Upper and lower lips	None	Bilabial	Plosive	Voiced	<u>B</u> ed
/m/	Upper and lower lips	None	Bilabial	Nasal	Voiced	<u>M</u> irror
/t/	Tip of the tongue	Alveolar ridge	Alveolar	Plosive	Voiceless	<u>T</u> rain
/d/	Tip of the tongue	Alveolar ridge	Alveolar	Plosive	Voiced	<u>D</u> rain
/l/	Tip of the tongue	Alveolar ridge	Alveolar	Lateral approximant	Voiced	<u>L</u> ate
/n/	Tip of the tongue	Alveolar ridge	Alveolar	Nasal	Voiced	<u>N</u> est
/s/	Blade of the tongue	Alveolar ridge	Alveolar	Fricative	Voiceless	<u>S</u> un
/z/	Blade of the tongue	Alveolar ridge	Alveolar	Fricative	Voiced	<u>Z</u> eal
/ʃ/	Blade of the tongue	Hard palate	Palato - alveolar	Fricative	Voiceless	<u>S</u> heep
/ʒ/	Blade of the tongue	Hard palate	Palato - alveolar	Fricative	Voiced	<u>M</u> ea <u>s</u> ure
/h/	Vocal folds	None	Glottal	Fricative	voiceless	<u>H</u> ot
/k/	Tongue back	Soft palate	Velar	Plosive	Voiceless	<u>K</u> ind
/g/	Tongue back	Soft palate	Velar	Plosive	Voiced	<u>G</u> round
/ŋ/	Tongue back	Soft palate	Velar	Nasal	Voiced	<u>B</u> ring
/j/	Tongue front	Hard palate	Palatal	Palatal approximant or semi-vowel	Voiced	<u>Y</u> awn
/r/	Tongue tip	Rear of alveolar ridge	Post-alveolar	Post-alveolar approximant or semi-vowel	Voiced	<u>R</u> ed
/f/	Lower lip	Upper front teeth	Labio-dental	Fricative	Voiceless	<u>F</u> ish
/w/	Upper and lower lips	None	Bilabial	Labial-velar approximation or semi-vowel	Voiced	<u>W</u> arn
/tʃ/	Blade of the tongue	Hard palate	Palato - alveolar	Affricate	voiceless	<u>C</u> hild
/dʒ/	Blade of the tongue	Hard palate	Palato - alveolar	Affricate	Voiced	<u>J</u> ury
/θ/	Tongue tip	Upper front teeth	Dental	Fricative	voiceless	<u>T</u> hreat
/ð/	Tongue tip	Upper front teeth	Dental	Fricative	voiced	<u>T</u> here
/v/	Lower lip	Upper front teeth	Labio-dental	Fricative	voiced	<u>V</u> inegar

(Collin & Mees, 2003:40; Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.38)

↙

4.2.3.2 Vowels

Vowels are the speech sounds which use the stricture of open approximation during their articulation. The air flow is not obstructed in the vocal tract when the vowels are articulated. As stated by Bloomer et al (2005: 250) “Consonants really provide the ‘colour’ of speech, while the more featureless vowels merely hold it all together”. The function of vowels is to bind the consonants together. The vowels can be divided as: Monophthong, Diphthong and Triphthong. Those vowels whose quality remains stable are known as monophthongs.

Vowels are described in terms of three features:

- The height of the tongue in the production of the vowel.
- The part of the tongue which is highest in the production of the vowel.
- The position of lips while articulating the vowels.

4.2.3.2.1 Height of the Tongue

It shows the relation between the heights to which the tongue is raised towards the roof of the oral cavity. If the tongue is close to the roof then a close vowel like /i/ is articulated. If the tongue is not raised much and there is a wide gap between its highest point and the roof of the oral cavity, the open vowel like /a:/ is articulated. The vowels produced in tongue position that lies between high and low are known as mid as /e/ in English word bed. Vowels that are between close and mid are called half close and between mid and open are called half open.

4.2.3.2.2 Part of the Tongue

The part of the tongue which is highest in the production of the vowel classifies the vowel sounds in three categories which are as follow:

- Front vowels: vowel like /i/ is produced by raising the front part of the tongue towards the hard palate. English sounds /i, i:, e, æ/ are the front vowels.
- Central vowels: English vowels /ʌ, ɜ:, ə/ are produced by raising the centre of the tongue to the point where hard and soft palates meet.
- Back vowels: Back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate to produce the back vowels. Vowels like /ʊ, u:, ɒ, ɔ:, a:/ are the back vowels.

4.2.3.2.3 Lip Position

The lip position also determines the quality of a vowel. The lips are either rounded as in /u/ or unrounded as in /i/.

The table below shows the qualities of monophthong vowels:

Table 4.2: Classification of English monophthongs

English monophthong vowels	Part of the tongue	Height of the tongue	Lip position	Example
/i/	Front	Half close	Unrounded	P <u>i</u> ck
/i:/	Front	Close	Unrounded	P <u>e</u> ak
/e/	Front	Half open	Unrounded	P <u>e</u> g
/æ/	Front	Open	Unrounded	P <u>a</u> ck
/ʊ/	Back	Half close	Rounded	P <u>u</u> sh
/u:/	Back	Close	Rounded	P <u>oo</u> l
/ɒ/	Back	Open	Rounded	P <u>o</u> t
/ɔ:/	Back	Mid	Rounded	P <u>o</u> nd
/ɑ:/	Back	Open	Unrounded	P <u>a</u> rt
/ʌ/	Central	Half open	Unrounded	P <u>l</u> uck
/ɜ:/	Central	Mid	Unrounded	P <u>e</u> rk
/ə/	Central	Mid	Unrounded	P <u>a</u> rade

4.2.3.3 Diphthongs

According to Ashby & Maidment (2005, p.75), “the quality of a vowel can change within a single syllable”. These are vowel glides and are known as diphthongs. In producing the centring diphthongs which are five in numbers, the tongue glides

towards the /ə/ which is a central vowel. The closing diphthongs glide towards the close vowels /i/ and /u/ and are three in numbers.

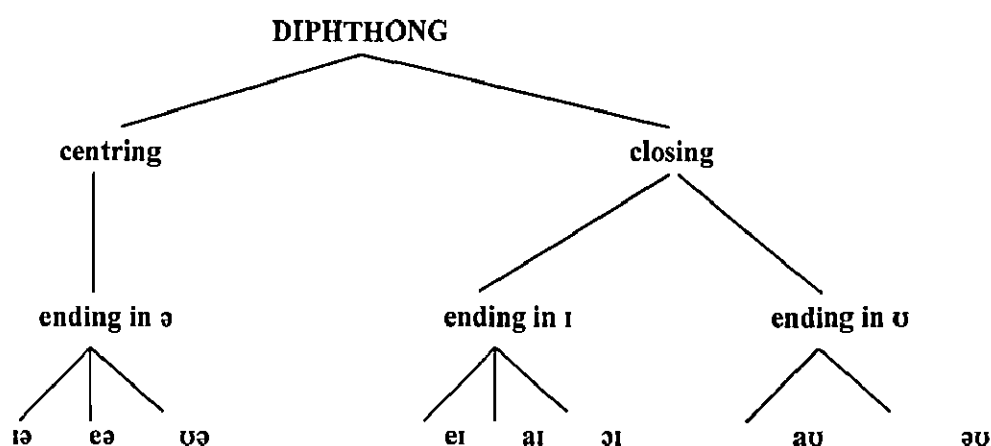


Fig 4.1 Classification of diphthongs

(Roach, 1991,p.20)

Table 4.3: Example of words having diphthongs

English Diphthong vowels	Example
/eɪ/	<u>P</u> ale
/aɪ/	<u>P</u> ile
/ɔɪ /	P <u>o</u> ison
/aʊ/	<u>P</u> ound
/əʊ/	P <u>o</u> ur
/ɪə/	<u>P</u> eer
/eə/	<u>P</u> air
/ʊə/	P <u>o</u> or

4.2.3.4 Triphthongs

Roach (1991) has explained triphthongs as:

The most complex English sounds of the vowel type are the triphthongs. They can be rather difficult to pronounce, and very difficult to recognise. A triphthong is a glide from one vowel to another and then to a third, all produced rapidly and without interruption. (p.23)

There are five triphthongs as listed by Roach (1991). These are eɪə, aɪə, ɔɪə, əʊə, aʊə.

Examples are as follow:

eɪə - Player

ɔɪə - Royal

aʊə - Power

aɪə - Fire

əʊə - Slower

Further, Roach (1991) says that:

The principal cause of difficulty for the foreign learner is that in present-day English the extent of the vowel movement is very small, except in very careful pronunciation. Because of this, the middle of the three vowel qualities of the triphthong (i.e. the ɪ or ʊ part) can hardly be heard and the resulting sound is difficult to distinguish from some of the diphthongs and long vowels. (p.23)

4.2.3.5 The Vowel Quadrilateral

The vowel quadrilateral is used to represent the vowels graphically. It shows the area that is involved in articulating vowels. The upper boundary that is used in vowel articulation is the region below the articulation point of fricatives. On the vowel quadrilateral, the part of the tongue (front, central, back) is labeled horizontally, while the height of the tongue (Close, Half-close, Half-open, Open, mid) is labelled vertically. The vowel quadrilateral is shown below:

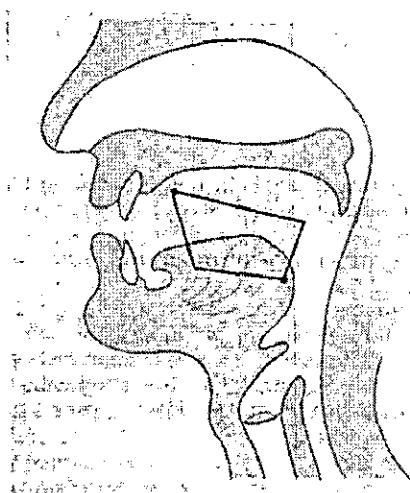


Fig. 4.2: The vowel space shown by the quadrilateral

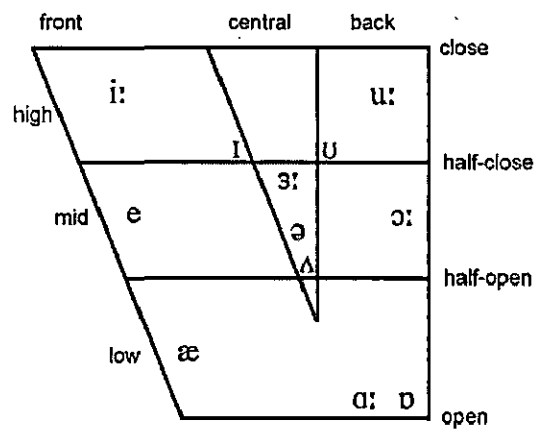


Fig. 4.3: English Pure Vowels or Monophthongs

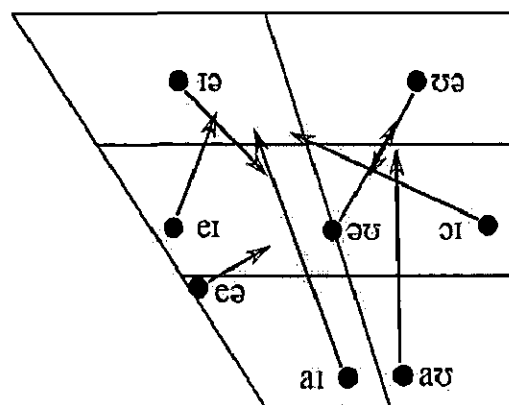


Fig. 4.4: English Diphthongs

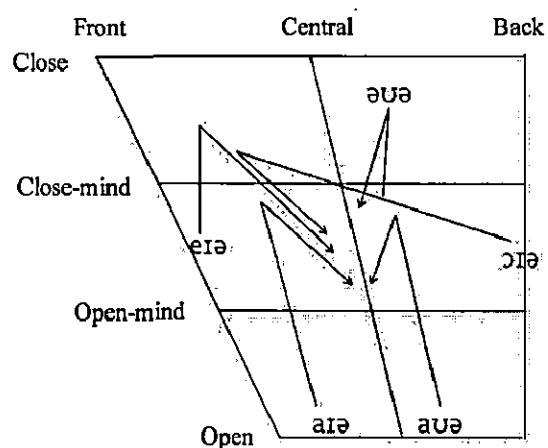


Fig. 4.5: English Triphthongs

4.2.4 Syllable

Ashby & Maidment (2005) have described Syllable as a group of sounds produced in “one pulse of speech” (p.7). In the structure of a syllable, the consonants either

precede or follow the vowel. Roach (1991) has defined a syllable phonetically as well as phonologically. Phonetically, the author has put the definition of a syllable as:

Phonetically (that is, in relation to the way we produce them and the way they sound), syllables are usually described as consisting of a centre which has little or no obstruction to airflow and which sounds comparatively loud; before and after this centre (that is, at the beginning and end of the syllable), there will be greater obstruction to airflow and/or less loud sound.

(Roach, 1991,p.67)

Phonologically, the author has also defined syllable keeping in mind the possible combination of phonemes. The phonological structure given by Roach (1991) is as follow:

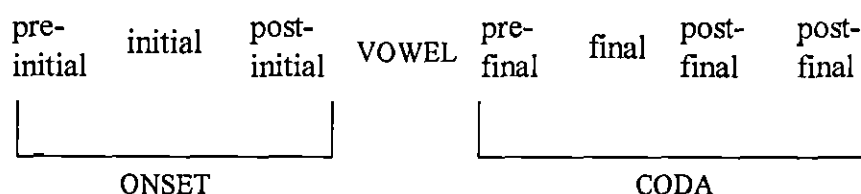


Fig. 4.6: Phonological structure of a syllable

(Roach, 1991, p.17)

Example: Sprain- Pre-initial (s)+ Initial (p)+Post-initial (r)+ Vowel (ai)+ Final (n).

The occurrence of two or more consonants in a single syllable is called consonant cluster. Collins & Mees (2003) have listed a set of possible vowel and consonant structures in English. The list is as shown in Table 4.4.

The knowledge of possible structure of a syllable in English may help one to overcome the problem of epenthesis and metathesis in speech. This will help the speakers to communicate intelligibly.

Table 4.4: English consonant clusters

Examples	Structures
Eye /aɪ/	V
Raw /rɔ:/	CV
On /ɔ:n/	VC
Dawn /dɔ:n/	CVC
Lawns /lɔ:nz/	CVCC
Draw /drɔ:/	CCV
Drawn /drɔ:n/	CCVC
Straw /strɔ:/	CCCV
Strands /strændz/	CCCVCCC
Glimpsed /glimpst/	CCVCCCC

4.2.5 Stress

Collins & Mees (2003) have said that stress is indicated by four factors which are:

- Intensity: Syllables that are stressed are associated with a greater audibility than the unstressed syllables.
- Pitch variation: Syllable with a strong stress is associated with high pitch.
- Vowel quality: Central or peripheral vowels also determine the pattern of stress. Stressed syllables tend to contain a peripheral vowel, for example /e/ as in *red*, while the unstressed syllables have central vowel /ə/ as in *better*.
- Vowel duration: Vowels are shorter in unstressed syllable while they are longer in the stressed syllable.

Ashby & Maidment (2005) have said that

stress is a relational feature, unlike features such as place and manner features or vowel quality features. So while it makes sense to ask whether an isolated consonant is, for example, alveolar, or whether an isolated vowel is back, it can never be sensible to ask whether an isolated syllable is stressed. (p.155-56)

4.2.5.1 Word Stress

Stress is either primary or secondary. Syllable that is prominent than the neighbouring syllables tend to receive the primary stress while the next prominent syllable have secondary stress. Primary stress is indicated by “a raised vertical line at the beginning of the syllable” (Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.157). The secondary stress is marked by a vertical line which is placed below the syllable receiving the secondary stress. The authors have also mentioned a few factors which govern the stress placement in English words. These are:

- Syllable weight: According to the authors, there are two kinds of syllables: Light syllables (contain a short vowel and one or no consonant), Heavy syllables (consist of one long vowel or diphthongs or a short vowel with not less than two consonants). The authors have said that in a word, heavy syllable receive the primary stress. Example: feeder -/ˈfi:də/. The syllable /fi:/ has the long vowel /i:/ and thus it is a heavy vowel which receives the stress.
- Word class: The authors have said that “stress placement in variable stress languages may be sensitive to the lexical class of a word, that is, whether it is a noun, a verb, an adjective and so on.” (Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.159).
- Suffixes: Addition of a suffix in a word can cause a stress to shift from the position where it was placed in the word without the suffix. These kinds of suffixes are called stress-imposing suffixes. Sometimes, addition of a suffix does not let the stress to shift from its previous place. These suffixes are known as stress-neutral suffixes.

Examples are as follow:

Table 4.5: Words having stress-imposing suffix and their transcription

Stress-imposing suffix	Words without suffix	Transcription	Words with suffix added	Transcription
-al	Universe	[¹ ju:nivɜ:s]	Universal	[ju:ni ¹ vɜ:sl]
-ic	Photograph	[¹ fəutəgræf]	Photographic	[fəutə ¹ græfik]
-ical	Hypothesis	[hai ¹ pəθəsis]	Hypothetical	[haipə ¹ θetɪkl]
-ity	Complex	[¹ kɒmpleks]	Complexity	[kəm ¹ pleksəti]

Table 4.6: Words having stress-neutral suffix and their transcription

Stress-neutral suffix	Words without suffix	Transcription	Words with suffix added	Transcription
-ed	Edit	[¹ edit]	Edited	[¹ editəd]
-er	Pretty	[¹ prɪti]	Prettier	[¹ prɪtiə]
-est	Lovely	[¹ lʌvli]	Loveliest	[¹ lʌvliəst]
-ing	Examine	[ig ¹ zæmin]	Examining	[ig ¹ zæminɪŋ]
-ive	Suggest	[¹ sʌ dʒest]	Suggestive	[¹ sʌ dʒestɪv]
-ly	Rapid	[¹ ræpɪd]	Rapidly	[¹ ræpɪdli]

(Ashby & Maidment, 2005, p.160)

Collins & Mees (2003) have presented some of the guidelines for placing stress in English words. These are as follow:

- a) Disyllabic or trisyllabic words: The rough guide given by the authors suggests the non-native English learners to place the primary stress on the first syllable. Example: ¹Project.
- b) Words that have four or more syllables: The tendency is that primary stress would be placed on the third syllable from the end, that is, antepenultimate syllable (syllable preceeding the last one).

Example: Exami¹nation

- c) Prefix words: Words that are shorter and begin with a prefix are primarily stressed on the syllable following the prefix. Example: Im¹pose, A¹ttract.
- d) Verbs are differentiated from noun by shifting the stress on different syllables. The authors have termed this as “switch stress” (Collins & Mees, 2003, p.112). The prefix is the carrier of stress in nouns, while the syllable

following the prefix receives the stress in verbs. Example: ¹Conduct (noun),
¹Conduct.

e) Word endings: There are some word endings that attract stress and they fall into two groups.

- Stress on ending itself- Examples are given below:

Table 4.7: Examples of words having suffix on their ending

Word Endings	Examples
-ade (nouns)	cas ¹ cade
-ain (verbs)	abs ¹ tain
-ee (nouns)	nomi ¹ nee
-eer (nouns)	engi ¹ neer
-esque (adjectives/nouns)	pictu ¹ resque
-esce (verbs)	conva ¹ lesce
-ess (verbs)	as ¹ sess
-ette (nouns)	ciga ¹ rette
-ique (nouns/adjectives)	phi ¹ sique
-oon ()	lam ¹ poon
-self/-selves	him ¹ self

- Stress on syllable preceding ending

Table 4.8: Examples of words having stress on the syllable preceeding ending

Word Endings	Examples	Word Endings	Examples
-ative	pe ¹ jorative	-inal	¹ nominal
-itive	in ¹ finitive	-ion	exami ¹ nation
-cient	pro ¹ ficient	-ital	¹ hospital
-ciency	pro ¹ ficiency	-itous	infe ¹ licitous
-eous	cou ¹ rageous	-itude	¹ attitude
-ety	so ¹ ciety	-ity	nega ¹ tivity
-ian	mu ¹ sician	-ive	sub ¹ jective
-ial	i ¹ nitial	-ual	¹ casual
-ic	i ¹ conic	-ular	¹ secular
-ical	¹ musical	-uous	In ¹ nocuous
-ident	¹ incident	-wards	¹ towards

- f) Stress in English compounds: English compounds receive stress either on their initial element, that is, “Initial Element Stress (IES)” or the “Final Element Stress (FES)”. (Collins & Mees, 2005, p.113)

Guidelines for placing stress in compound words.

- Word Shape: When the compound words are written as a single word, it will receive IES. Those compounds written as two words or separated with a hyphen can have both IES and FES.
- The Manufactures Rule: If one of the words in the compound is a material that is used in its manufacturing then FES is applied. Example- Cotton ¹clothes. While the non-manufactured items take IES. Example- ¹Cotton plant.
- Location Rule: Following are the compounds where locations are mentioned.
 - 1) If the first word in the compound is the name of a country, region, or town, then FES is followed. Example -Bermuda ¹shorts
 - 2) Compounds depicting various geographical features have FES. Example- Bridges, Parks, etc.
- Parts of a building tend to receive FES. Example- Kitchen ¹garden.
- A large number of compounds related to food items have FES. Example- Tomato ¹sauce.
- Compounds that have the names of academic subjects, skills, etc. follow IES. Example- ¹English teacher.
- Compounds that are the names of magazines, newsletters, etc. have FES. Example- Women’s ¹Era.

- IES is followed in compounds where an activity is carried out with the help of an object. Example-¹Washing machine.
- FES is followed in compounds which show a trait of the object. Example- Running ¹water.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.112-15)

4.2.5.2 Sentence Stress

In connected speech, the above mentioned rules for word stress may be lost. The primary stress in a sentence is placed on those words that carry the important information. Function words like prepositions, articles, auxiliary verbs, pronouns, etc. carry little information so they are unstressed in the sentence. Content words like nouns, adjectives, adverbs, main verbs, etc. are the information carriers, so they are stressed in a sentence.

Example- I¹'ve ¹seen that ¹Mary and ¹Jack ¹loved to ¹play in¹ park.

There are some exceptions to the rules of sentence stress.

- a) Demonstratives like this, that and wh-words when used in interrogative sentence are stressed because they impart important information in the sentence.
- b) When function words show a contrast in the sentence, they receive stress.
Example- Give ¹him a cup of tea not ¹her.
- c) Prepositions are also stressed when a contrast is implied or stated.
- d) In rapid speech, unstressed syllables will increase and many lexical words may be unstressed.

(Collins & Mees, 2003, p.115)

4.2.6 Rhythm

Rhythm has its roots in the sentence stress. English language follows stress-timed rhythm which “tends to occur at roughly equal intervals of time” (Collins & Mees, 200, p.115). Languages that follow syllable-timed give “the impression of roughly equal length for each syllable regardless of stressing” (Collins & Mees, 2003, p.116). Languages like Hindi, Greek, Spanish, Polish and Turkish follow syllable-timed rhythm. According to McCarthy (1991), “The impression of rhythm may arise out of a feeling of alternation between strong and weak ‘beats’ in various patterned recurrences”(90). The longer stretches of speech have rhythm of various degrees. Further, the author has said that utterances are divided into chunks of syllables having almost the same length and these chunks are called feet. A foot should have one syllable that is stressed. In each foot, syllables are either expanded or compressed (which depends on the number of syllables) in order to maintain rhythm in the speech.

4.2.7 Intonation

The variation in pitch is limited to intonation in English. It extends over the larger stretches of speech and writing. The intonation pattern is crucial for communication because it adds additional meaning to the words used in written or spoken discourse. According to Wennerstrom (2000),

...native speakers of English use a system of pitch contrasts to disambiguate given and new information and to segment chunks of discourse according to turn-taking conventions. It is hypothesized that the ability on the part of a nonnative speaker to exploit these systems will contribute to his or her overall fluency. (p.106)

4.2.7.1 Functions of Intonation

The four functions of intonation are discussed below:

- Focusing function or Accentual function: The speaker emphasizes on that part of the utterance which is significant for the discourse. As per the need, the speaker can shift the position of nucleus in order to emphasize the different information.

For example:

- a) Rebecca drove her new car. (neutral)
 - b) Rebecca drove her *new* car. (new one not the old)
 - c) Rebecca drove *her* new car. (not anybody's else)
 - d) Rebecca *drove* her new car. (not washed but drove)
- Attitudinal function: This function implies that an utterance may have various connotations. As stated by Collins and Mees (2003), “ Attitudinal function is what allows speakers constantly to superimpose an attitude on top of the base semantic content of what is being said” (p.125). Hence, intonation helps to understand the kind of interpretation speaker wants to attach with his/her utterance. The two tones fall-rise and rise-fall help in marking the attitudinal function. The uses of these tones as given by Collins and Mees (2003, p.125) are given below:
 - a) Fall-rise: To clear doubt, to make corrections, to make an appeal to the listener to reconsider.
 - b) Rise-fall: Impressed, arrogant, confident, self-satisfied, mockery, putting down.

Another two tones, that is, high fall and low rise are considered as neutral. The low fall and high rise strengthens the impact of an utterance. The above two tones help one to add something new to the utterance, focus or exaggerate the attitude of the speakers.

- Grammatical function: It helps the speakers to differentiate grammatical functions of the utterance.

For example: You are coming.(statement)

You are coming? (question)

- Discourse function- It helps one to participate in spoken discourse. With the help of this function, the speaker signals to take turns or demonstrate the relationship between them and their listeners. In this regard, the nuclear tone is allocated in two categories:
 - a) Falling tone which suggests completedness and that the information is unloaded.
 - b) Rising tone that shows incompleteness and that more information is needed to complete the message.

Therefore comments and statements have falling tones whereas yes/no questions and the sub-ordinate clauses in the beginning of the sentence have rising tones.

Further, Wennerstrom (2000) has suggested the aspects given below to be included as “components in an interactional model of fluency in English” (p.125). These are

- The use of pitch on lexical items to indicate their respective roles in the information structure and in contrasts.
- The use of pitch at boundaries to hold or relinquish turns.

(p.125)

4.3 Teaching Phonological Processes

These processes are frequently used in the connected speech. They help to maintain an easy flow in oral communication. Sounds in a word are conditioned phonetically on the basis of the context of their occurrence. The concern of phonology is not only limited to the distinction of phonemes (which are the minimal meaningful unit of sound) and sound distribution but also with the patterns of sound (Ashby & Maidment, 2005). As stated Ashby & Maidment (2005), “phonological processes operate upon natural groupings of sounds and give rise to alternations in the forms of words” (p.40). The following are the various phonological processes which are the marked feature of oral fluency.

4.3.1 Assimilation

In this process a sound is substituted by some other sound under the influence of the adjacent one. For example- in the word *break down* /brekdaun/, the sound /k/ becomes /g/ under the influence of /d/ and hence becomes /bregdaun/.

4.3.1.1 Types of Assimilation

- The process of assimilation is regressive or leading when a sound changes under the influence of the following sound.

Example: *white page* /wait pei dʒ/ becomes /waip peidʒ/.

- The process of assimilation is progressive or lagging when a sound changes under the influence of preceding sound.

Example: *in the room* /in ðə ru:m/ becomes /in nə ru:m/.

(Collins & Mees, 2003; Richard, Platt & Platt, 1992)

4.3.1.2 Types of Influence in Assimilation

- Assimilation that alters the place of articulation is known as place assimilation.

For example- Alveolars are substituted by labials, velars or palatal sounds. *Wet bed* /wet bed/ becomes /wepbed/.

- Assimilation that involves the manner of articulation is called manner assimilation. For example- nasal or lateral sound may substitute fricative sound, like *Coin the term* /kɔɪn ðə tɜ:m/ becomes /kɔɪn ni tɜ:m/.
- Co-occurrence of assimilation involves different assimilations which happen together at a time. For example, *mind you* /maɪnd ju: / becomes /maɪndʒu: /. Both place and manner assimilations influence /d/ & /j/ of the pure form. Here /j/ palatal approximant under the influence of /d/ alveolar plosive becomes /dʒ/ palato-alveolar affricate.

4.3.2 Elision

Sometimes a sound in the sequence is omitted in the word when used in connected speech. This is also called deletion or truncation. As mentioned by Collins & Mees (2003), most of the times elision is followed by assimilation. Example- *let me* /let mi:/ becomes /lemme/. Further, the authors have discriminated between “contemporary assimilation and elision vs historical assimilation and elision processes” (Collins & Mees, 2003, p.103). The contemporary assimilation and elision processes are restricted to some phonetic context and in many cases these processes tend to be optional. In historical assimilation/elision, original forms of the words are lost and only the assimilated or elided forms exist.

For example- *cupboard* /kʌbəd /instead of/ kʌpbɔ:d/, *comb* /kəʊm/, *wrist* /rist/ etc. Hence, assimilation and elision are useful elements for maintaining rhythm in speech. They frequently deal with the unstressed syllables in the utterance.

4.3.3 Liaison

It is a process where a sound is inserted in a sequence in rapid speech. English accents form two categories that depend on the distribution of /r/ sound. Rhotic accents are those where /r/ is pronounced in all the environments. /r/ in non-rhotic accents is pronounced only when it precedes a vowel. In non-rhotic accent “orthographic *r* is regularly restored as a link across word boundaries” (Collins & mees, 2003, p.104).

Example- *butter and jam* /bʌtə ænd dʒæm/ becomes /bʌtrændʒæm/. This *r* between /t/ and /ə/ is called linking *r*. Many speakers of non-rhotic English insert /r/ even when there is no *r* in the orthography of the word. This is called intrusive *r*. Example –*his idea of party* /hiz aɪdɪə əv pɑ:ti/ becomes /hiz aɪdɪərəv pɑ:ti/.

4.3.4 Juncture

It marks the boundary between two phonemes in order to retain the identity of the words used in colloquial or fluent speech. Gimson (1962) explained juncture in the way mentioned below:

Despite the fact that the word may have its isolate form identity considerably modified by its immediate phonemic and accentual context, both as regards its constituent sounds and its accentual or rhythmic pattern, phonetic features may be retained in the speech continuum which mark word or morpheme boundaries. (p. 275)

Example: *big and scary picture* /big æn skeəri/ becomes /bigæn skeəri/ if the juncture between /g/ and /æ/ is not properly stressed. Therefore, establishing juncture between words (where needed) is important to gain intelligibility in fluent speech.

4.4 Use of Community Language Learning & Total Physical Response Teaching

Methods in Classroom

Besides the communicative approach towards developing oral fluency among L2 learners, there could be many more approaches which can be implemented to get the desired result. The aim of teaching fluency to L2 learners should be to enable them to convey their message effectively. Their speech should be intelligible to a larger audience, not only nationally but also internationally. The strategy as suggested in this research is to combine the teaching methods: Charles Curran's Community Language Learning (CLL) and James Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR). These teaching methods should be used in two different phases. In the first phase, the CLL should be applied to ensure that the learners' attention is mobilized and their interest is aroused. Here the role of the teacher would be that of a counselor. Later the TPR method should be used in the classroom where the learners shall be provided with imperative inputs from the teacher, who will be then playing a partially active role. The technique for carrying out the proposition would be Maurice's (1983) 4/3/2 technique which is a shrinking time frame within which the learners have to articulate the tasks assigned to them.

The current trends in language teaching focus on the oral skills. But this was not the approach to language teaching earlier. A language was learnt earlier merely to read its literature. Emphasis was just laid on just the mastery of texts i.e. rote memorization

and translation of literary texts. A person's mastery over the language was based on his/her knowledge of the grammar and its structure. There was not much importance given to develop the speaking skills in the language. Later, the ever growing globalization of English changed the language teaching perspectives. Methods that focused more on the spoken language skill were adopted. English became a bridge to the world. Methods such as 'the Silent Way', 'Suggestopedia', etc. were tried on small scales for teaching purpose. These methods were based on psycholinguistic theories of language. The other two methods that focused on the oral skill were the 'Situational Language Teaching', which put emphasis on the teaching of language in various situations. The learners had to repeat or had to take drills of the structures as provided by the teacher. This approach failed at the level of its practicality because the learners would have to face situations that may not have been taught in the classroom. Though this method focused mainly on developing oral skills, its belief over predicting all situations was impractical. The other method that tried to develop oral proficiency was the 'Audio Lingual Method' that focused on the use of dialogue and followed conditioning and habit formation models of language learning. To have the accurate pronunciation was the target. Hence, significance to accuracy was given more priority than to fluency in oral communication. This method gained criticism due to the lack of communicative proficiency. The above two methods were supported by structural linguists. But the revolution in linguistics brought by Chomsky changed the perspectives in language teaching. The most popularly accepted and practical approach for the present day needs is the 'Communicative Language Teaching' (CLT). It claims that "function is the framework through which forms are taught"(Brown, 1987, p.213). It focused on fluency rather than accuracy. CLT encouraged the use of group and pair work where students could learn language by interacting in groups and pairs. But the

disadvantage that came while carrying out such kind of involvement was that if a classroom had all speakers sharing the same mother tongue, the students will end up using their mother tongue with each other while performing the task in groups and pairs. The reason being that they may not be confident enough in using the target language (unless they are monitored properly). CLT implies the use of authentic language in classroom teaching. Keeping all the above criticism of the different teaching methods and the result of the survey carried out in this research (which has revealed that undergraduate students at AMU are highly anxious) in mind, it is suggested that the use of Community Language Learning (CLL) and Total Physical Response (TPR) simultaneously may promote fluency of undergraduate ESL learners at AMU.

Making any learning process totally student- centered is not practical in the Indian classroom. Both the teacher and the learner have to be given equal importance in the teaching programme. First, while adopting the CLL (Community Language Learning) method, it is important to ensure that the students have calmed down and prepared enough to participate without any hesitation in the speaking activity. It is basically a counseling method proposed by Charles Curran where the teacher acts as a counselor. This method uses techniques to help the learners overcome their psychological and emotional problems that hinder in the learning of a new language. This is one of the major problems faced by the students at AMU. Therefore, CLL is the most appropriate method for meeting the needs of AMU students. The CLL emphasizes the learners' personal feelings and their reaction to language learning. Here the students will have to talk about things which they want to say in their native language. The role of a teacher is to translate their utterance in the target language. The learner then repeats the same to the other members of the group. Hence, this method puts the learners at

ease and in a comfortable learning environment. At the later stage, TPR (Total Physical Response) should be applied in the classroom. It is a method proposed by James Asher which is “built around the coordination of speech and action” (Richards & Rogers, 1986, p.87). Its objective is to teach oral proficiency at the beginning level. Asher claims that “adults should recapitulate the process by which children acquire their mother tongue” (as cited in Richards & Rogers, 1986, p.87). The author further states that “most of the grammatical structure of the target language and a wide range of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperatives by the instructor” (p.88). This method minimizes learners’ stress. Therefore, this method is given importance in ESL classrooms to improve and develop the speech of learners. Further, this proposition should use Keith Maurice’s 4/ 3/ 2 technique to carry out activities, which is a shrinking time frame within which they have to retell the same message again and again. The above technique emphasizes the concept of repetition. In a repeated speech some knowledge is already activated and therefore easier to access. Accuracy in speech is not sought as it would not give the expected result. The learners will definitely make errors but they are developmental errors which would help them to improve upon themselves.

4.4.1 Worksheet for CLL Activity

Describing an object

In this activity one of the students is asked to describe the object placed on the classroom table. The student describes that object in his/her native language to the teacher at first. Then, the teacher provides the student with the English translation of the description. After this, he/she is asked to face the classroom and retell the description provided by the teacher. Afterwards, another student is called and asked to

recapitulate the same description to the whole class in four minutes. Likewise, two more students are called and asked to repeat the same thing for three and two minutes respectively.

Write some of the key words to be used:

4.4.2 Worksheet for TPR Activity

Giving directions

In this activity one of the students is blindfolded. An object is kept at a distant place. The person who is being blindfolded does not know about the object. Rest of the students gives directions and necessary information one by one to that person so that he/she finds that object and reaches that place safely. Likewise each student gets the chance to get instructed.

Write some of the key words to be used: _____

It is believed that while carrying out CLL activity, the participants shall start to lose the feeling of self-consciousness. The phenomenon of repetition may make them confident enough to use a wide range of vocabulary to convey the message. The length of fluent runs shall increase significantly after repetition of the same message. Number of pauses and hesitations may also decrease with the decreasing time frame. The pausing used by the ESL students should be taken as the thinking time when they were processing language in their mind. Hence, the CLL and TPR methods along with Maurice's 4/3/2 technique may prove to be very efficient for developing the confidence in the participants to speak English.

4.5 Artistic Use of Fillers

Generally the teaching of English language includes introducing the students with grammatical rules and the theories related to phonetics and the phonological processes. But, it would be a very effective step if they are introduced to some communication strategies also which are necessary for a successful communication. “Communication strategies are used by the non-fluent learners during L2 interaction, in order to overcome specific communicative problems” (Mitchell and Myles 2002, p.94). These are the strategies which provide a kind of help to the learners themselves.

A high speech rate while communicating is not what fluency in speech demands. Instead, it implies conveying meaning by using various strategies of communication without distracting the listener’s attention. Pauses, stammers and errors of articulation are the “rules in conversation” (Abercrombie, 1965, p.7-8), but if they happen to be too long, the effectiveness of the message is lost. To avoid breakdown in communication, these pauses must be filled with some communication strategies. One of those strategies can be the use of fillers that has definite semantic implications in oral communication. Different kinds of fillers such as words, phrases, sounds, paralinguistic features, and various other communication strategies can be used to gain fluency in speech. Since L2 learners of English at AMU have an average linguistic competence, they are unable to clear their doubts in the classroom as well. Such a loss can be compensated by sharpening the second language learners’ strategic competence (Anderson, Mclean and Lynch, 2004). The artistic use of fillers is one of the major components of strategic competence because as defined by Canale and Swain (as cited in Brown, 1987, p.200) strategic competence is “the verbal or non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdown

in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence''. Hence, fillers in speech are the moves made by the speakers to maintain a smooth flow in their speech so that it sounds natural. Previously, a high speech rate in communication was considered as an efficient marker of oral fluency. Gradually, when the emphasis shifted on the message as an important element of communication many new definitions of fluency emerged. It is observed that fluent native speakers of English vary their speech depending on the context in which they are speaking. Since high speech rate with heavily accented words would make the English speech barely comprehensible in Indian context, a moderate rate of speaking is preferred. Hence, while developing oral fluency, speech rate should not be given too much importance. Instead, the extensive use of fillers should be introduced to the learners so that they can speak English confidently with their present knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Hedge (1993, cited in Riggenbach) says that "learners' fluency increases as they learn to deal with their linguistic uncertainty rather than pauses." (p.11)

4.5.1 Types of Fillers

There are many types of fillers that are used while speaking. Some of the communication strategies that are widely used as fillers in a fluent speech are discussed below:

- **Sounds:** These are the most common fillers used by both fluent as well as non-fluent speakers of English.
- **Words and phrases** are also used by the communicators to avoid any unusual pauses in their speech.

For example: Speaker A is talking to Speaker B in a restaurant.

Speaker A: What should I order for you?

Speaker B: A pizza...and....mhhh...you can also place an order for a cup of coffee.

- Sometimes the last sound of a word or phrase is elongated intentionally so that the speech sounds natural and the speaker gets enough time to think what to say next. Most of the times a filler word or phrase is elongated while taking turn in a conversation.

For example:

Speaker A: This is a beautiful place.

Speaker B: Yes, I agree with you.

Speaker A: How do you feel here?

Speaker B: Wellll...in the lap of nature.

- Repetition of the filler words or phrases also maintains the flow of speech.

For Example: Speaker A needs some suggestions from Speaker B

Speaker A: you are my best friend. Please tell me what should I do next?

Speaker B: you are right my friend but I think...I think...you need to talk to your parents also.

- Very often, some paralinguistic features are also used to convey the message which is being understood by the listener from the context.

For example:

Speaker A: I could not find my keys that I had kept in the upper drawer.

Speaker B: (No reply) just shrugs off his shoulders.

Speaker A: Ok...please help me to find them.

Just shrugging off the shoulders by speaker A meant that he had no idea about them.

- Approximation: Using target language vocabulary and structure which the learners know is not correct but has common semantic features with the desired word/sentence.

For example: A person saying:

There was no *light* in my area yesterday.

Instead of: There was no *electricity* in my area yesterday.

- Word Coinage: The speaker coins a new word to describe a concept.

For example: A person saying:

He is a *chatterbox*.

Instead of: He is very *talkative*.

- Circumlocution: Instead of pausing for a long time to think for a word to be used in an utterance, a speaker should use this strategy to convey the meaning of that word. In circumlocution, a speaker describes the characteristics of the object rather than using the exact target language word or structure.

For example: A person is trying to explain to his friend that he has bought an ashtray in the conversation stated below:

Speaker A: I have bought..mhmm...a thing in which we put ashes of cigarettes..err..one that is kept on the centre table of your living room.

Speaker B: Ohh..you mean an ashtray!!!

By using this communication strategy the speaker indirectly asks for help from his listener.

- Code Switching: Here, a speaker changes his speech from one language or a variety of language to another one or it can be said that code switching refers to alternating between one or more languages.

For Example: A person whose mother tongue is Urdu starts talking in English but he switches over to his mother tongue in between his English speech when he senses breakdown in communication.

Speaker A: How did you fracture your leg?

Speaker B: Actually, when I was going towards the stairsss...i..my right leg got trapped..You know..*kisi cheez se atak gaya*..and I completely lost balance *aur sidhiyon se gir gaya*..

Speaker B wants to say that his right leg got trapped in something due to which he lost his balance and fell off from the stairs.

These are some of the strategies that can help the speakers of English to improve their oral proficiency. There are many CDs available to help ESL learners to practice pronunciation, stress, rhythm & intonation. Likewise, L2 learners of English can be provided with a CD in which the use of these strategies that fill up the silence in communication, are dealt in a wide perspective with proper examples taken from the speech of non- native fluent speakers of English.

4.6 Formulaic Expressions as an Aid in Promoting Oral Fluency

As indicated by the result of the survey, many L2 learners are unable to retrieve vocabulary or expressions from their mental lexicon when they have to communicate in English (Lennon,2000). This happens because either they lack competence in the language or performance in the same. Hence, the strategy to make ESL students aware of the use of different formulaic expressions in various speech acts can be useful. These expressions will vary according to the degree of formality of the situation. This may prove to be an effective strategy in teaching oral communication, as Fillmore (2000) has also observed that one must have command over a number of processes for creating new expressions.

4.6.1 Formulaic Expressions

These expressions, as explained by Fillmore (2000), are fixed and their appropriate interpretation depends on the context in which they are used. These are being memorized rather than generated. It has been claimed that formulaic expressions can work as miracle for less proficient speakers because “constant exposure to and practice in the use of the prefabricated chunks with which communication is forged, whether those chunks be complete lexical phrases ... may be more useful than dissecting and analyzing those chunks” (O’Keeffe, McCarthy & Carter, 2007, p.137) They have pointed out that “formulaic utterances can extend from multiword chunks to discoursal routines” (p.63). Expressions like *nice to see you* and *see you later* are formulaic because they keep on occurring in certain context and perform pragmatic function. Some of the conversational routines are as follow:

Table 4.9: Conversational routines with examples

Random example of routinised patterns for CANCODE	Conversational routine
<i>Hey, Hiya, hello there, How are you</i>	<i>Greeting</i>
<i>See you later</i>	<i>Leave-taking</i>
<i>Welcome, thank you very much, thank god for that, thank goodness for that, thank you ever so much, thanks for your help</i>	<i>Expressive (or acknowledgements)</i> <i>Such as: apologizing, appreciating, complimenting, condemning, congratulating, regretting, thanking, welcoming</i>
<i>Would you like to, do you want, do you want some, I'd love to, that's a nice idea, that would be lovely</i>	<i>Commissives such as promising, offering, inviting</i>
<i>How would you feel about, have you got, would you be willing to, you've got to, you're supposed to, you'll have to, you'd be better off</i>	<i>Directives such as commanding, instructing, suggesting, advising, warning, requesting</i>

(O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.165)

- These routines help to maintain relationship between speakers and listeners. Further, discourse markers function communicatively and organise the discourse by marking shifts and junction in conversation. O’Keeffe et al (2007) has defined discourse marker “as words and phrases outside of the clause structure, that function to line segments of

the discourse to one another in ways which reflect choices of monitoring, organisation and management exercised by the speaker” (p. 172). These markers help to reformulate the speech if certain error/mistake has been monitored by the speakers. This feature helps to maintain fluency in speech.

Hedging as mentioned by O’Keeffe et al (2007) is a prominent feature of natural speech. It is a term which show how some words/phrases can be used in conversation as a “face- saving devices” (p.174).

Table 4.10: Summary of the most common forms of hedges

Form	example
Modal verbs and verbs with modal meaning (believe, feel, guess, imagine, reckon, suppose, think), specially when used with the pronoun	<i>I guess the bus service isn't too good, is it?</i>
Nouns	<i>There is a possibility, the thing is, etc.</i>
Adverbs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Degree adverbs • Restrictive adverbs • Stance adverbs 	<i>Quite, really, relatively, necessarily</i> <i>Just, only</i> <i>Of course, actually, kind of, sort of, really, maybe</i>
Syntactic choices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choice of question form • Double negative • Evaluative relative clause insertion 	<i>And would you have thought you were very close to him?</i> [as opposed to: <i>and were you very close to him?</i>] <i>It's not that I'm not afraid.....vs. I am afraid</i> <i>You got them to do this cross-group reporting which was a good idea but the time was the problem</i>
Features of ‘onliness’ adjustments (false start, repetitions, etc.)	<i>And will you would you like to go sort of on a sun and sea holiday with him this year?</i>

(O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.175)

Thus it can be said that features like discourse markers, conversational routines and hedging help “...speakers in the real time of online speech orient, monitor, manage, modify and soften their message so as to relate to the hearer. (O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.181).

Hence, mastery over formulaic utterances helps students to use language easily. These fixed linguistic forms must become the part of ESL speaker's knowledge.

4.6.2 Speech Act:

It is an utterance which is a functional unit in communication. It has both propositional (literal meaning) and illocutionary (the effect of speech or writing on the reader or listener) meanings. Some examples of speech act are requests, order, complaints, promises etc. Talking about relational language and transactional language, O'Keeffe et al (2007) describe the former as those features of language which are used to hold healthy relations between speakers and listeners. Transactional language is used to commute information. However, both types of language use may occur in different speech acts.

Table 4.11 : Features of Relational Language

Feature of relational language	Example
Conversational routines <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thanking • Leave-taking • Requestive routines 	<i>Thanks, thanks a million</i> <i>Bye now, bye</i> <i>Can I have.....please?</i>
Small talk	Coolish isn't it
Hedging <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hedged syntactic structures <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Negative declarative + tag questions ○ Noun phrase + tag ○ Vague interrogative + hedging modal verb <i>would</i> 	<i>You don't sell stamps do yet?</i> [unhedged version: <i>do you sell stamps</i> , Even less hedged: <i>I want stamps</i>] <i>Four scones, is it?</i> <i>Is there any lad around that would lift it?</i>
Discourse markers	<i>Now, ah, oh, last of all, right, okay</i>
Vagueness and approximation	<i>Coolish, any lad around, tis kind of dry</i>
Vocative use (endearment form used)	<i>Dear</i>

(O'Keeffe et al, 2007, p.162)

4.6.3 Use of Formulaic Expressions in various Speech Acts

Formulaic utterances for various speech acts should be introduced at the very onset of teaching English to ESL students. This will help the students later when they are asked to perform speaking activities like role plays, storytelling etc. because they will not

grope for words or phrases or expressions to communicate in English. Once the second language learners get the opportunity to break the silence, their anxiety level decreases. Hence, they may improve their speaking skill gradually. According to Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (as cited in Brown, 1987), affective variables such as anxiety, stress, low motivation etc. act as filter and impede the development of second language.

The use of formulaic expressions is dependent on the formality of situation. Expressions would vary in their physical manifestation in different situations despite carrying the same meaning. Sometimes ESL students express their message in a way that is impermissible in that context. Hence, they land themselves in a very awkward situation. This creates frustration and anxiety in them. They become demotivated to use the language any more.

For example:

A conversation between a teacher and a student.

Teacher: Why your work is not checked?

Student: Sir, I came for the same yesterday, but you were so busy that you *did not check it*. (Inappropriate response.)

Student: Sir, I came for the same yesterday, but I *could not get it checked* as you were held up in some work. (Appropriate response)

Thus, utterances in most of the formal situations tend to use passive voice.

Some of the examples of different formulaic expressions for various speech acts are listed below:

1. a) Agreeing in a formal situation.
 - Yes Sir/Madam.

- b) Agreeing in an informal situation.
- You know that's exactly what I think.
 - I couldn't agree more.
2. a) Disagreeing in a formal situation.
- I'm afraid, I don't agree with that.
 - I'm not sure. I wonder....
- b) Disagreeing in an informal situation.
- Surely not! Certainly not!
 - I really don't think that's right.
 - I don't agree. I completely disagree.
3. a) Inviting in formal situation.
- You are cordially invited to attend.....
 - It would give us/me immense pleasure if you could.....
- b) Inviting in informal situation
- You are coming for....
 - I don't want any excuse, you have to....
4. a) Greetings in formal situation.
- Good Morning/Evening/Afternoon! How are you sir/madam?
- b) Greetings in an informal situation.
- Hi! What's up?
 - Hey, what's up?
5. a) Requesting in formal situation.
- It would be very kind of you if you....
 - I would be highly obliged if you....

- b) Requesting in an informal situation.
 - Please, you can....
 - Do take some.
- 6. a) Expressing gratitude in a formal situation.
 - That is/was (vey) kind/good/nice of you.
 - I am really very grateful/obliged to you.
- b) Expressing gratitude in an informal situation.
 - Thanks!
 - Thanks a lot!
 - Many thanks!
- 7. a) Accepting thanks in formal situation.
 - It's my pleasure!
- b) Accepting thanks in an informal situation.
 - It's all right!

Likewise, many more formal and informal formulaic expressions can be introduced for different speech acts. This strategy is for those ESL learners who always remain silent in the class because of the fear of cutting a sorry figure in front of others. The idea behind this strategy is to familiarize ESL learners with these expressions so that when they come across such situations, they can retrieve those utterances from their memory easily. According to Lennon (2000, cited in Riggensbach) proficient speakers tend to access words from the memory easily and the formulation process is highly automatized for them. Thus, this technique would prove to be a motivation booster for tongue-tied ESL learners.

4.7 Teaching of Vocabulary

Teaching of vocabulary is of great importance because incompetency in vocabulary impedes the fluency of English. The findings of this work indicated that retrieval of words when needed by the students is very problematic and thus is a serious concern. Wallace (1982) has mentioned some problems that are associated with the learning of vocabulary. These are:

- Retrieval of vocabulary when needed.
- Unable to use vocabulary according to the degree of formality of the communicative situations.
- Unable to use dictionary correctly that is, looking for the words in the dictionary without knowing its context of use.
- Bad pronunciation or incorrect stress on words.

Thus it is very important to make students aware of the basic system of vocabulary. Lado (1955) has mentioned three facets of words which are significant in the study of vocabulary. These are as discussed in later sections.

4.7.1 Forms

Words take up different forms. The process of affixation is one of the processes that change the word forms. Likewise, the position of words in a sentence, the rate of speech and the pattern of stress also determine its form.

Example: The word *and* may have different realizations in different context. Like /ənd/, /ən/, /n/ and /æn/. These forms depend on the rate of speaking and pattern of stress speakers are using.

4.7.2 Meaning

Meaning of a word depends on many factors. One of those factors is culture. Thus a word may have various connotations. For example- people living in cold countries experience various kinds of snow and hence use different words to distinguish between the kinds of snow. Meanings can be lexical, syntactic as well as morphological.

For example:

The meaning “housing that someone is living in” when attached to form “home” is a lexical meaning in English.

The meaning “past tense marker” that is attached to –ed in *looked*, *loved* is a morphological meaning.

The meaning “exclamation” attached to the arrangement of words in the sentence ‘*How nice you look!*’ gives syntactic meaning.

Moreover, the use of words by a speaker may indicate his/her social class or reveal their geographical identity.

4.7.3 Distribution of Words

A word has different distribution which depends on the context of its occurrence. A word may act as a noun or as a verb. Example- *love* in sentence *Poor need a lot of love* is a noun but it acts as a verb in *I love French food*. However, it cannot act as an adjective without the change in its form.

Example *lovely dress*.

Apart from the forms, meanings and distribution, words have got various classifications. Fries (as cited by Lado, 1955) has explained four groups which are mentioned below:

- Function words: These words impart grammatical functions. Example- *do*, *be*.
- Substitute words: They substitute a word class. Example- pronouns.
- Grammatically distributed words: Words like *some* and *any* exhibit grammatical limitations in their distribution.
- Content words: These words form the major part of the vocabulary system in English.

4.7.4 Semantic Relationships

Besides having a sound knowledge of so far discussed aspects, the teaching of vocabulary also includes awareness of the various semantic relationships a word has.

These are discussed below:

- Synonyms: Words which mean nearly the same are synonyms.
Example- *show* and *exhibit* are synonymous.
- Antonyms: Words that are opposite to each other.
Example- *Hard* and *soft*.
- Hyponym: It shows relationship between words where the meaning of one words cover the meaning of other. For example- *Flower* and *rose*. Flower is a general term that includes rose and other flowers. Another example is *sound* which covers the different kinds of sounds like *moan*, *yell*, *whisper*, *shout*.
- Homonym: Words are written and pronounced alike but they differ in their meanings. Example-*Dear*. Meaning of *dear* is *loved one* and also *high price*.
- Homophones: Words that are pronounced alike but have different meanings and are also written differently. Example-*cite* and *sight*.

- Homographs: Words that are written alike but are pronounced differently and have different meanings. Example- *Dove* (a bird) and *dove* (second form of verb dive).

4.7.5 Associative Learning

Vocabulary is also taught by using the concept of associative learning as mentioned by Richards, Platt & Platt (1992). Here the learners are asked to make connections between things. Associative learning can be classified in following ways:

- Association by contiguity: Here students are required to guess words that are closely associated to each other. Example- a word like *class* may associate words like *teacher, notebook, learning, questions*.
- Association by similarity: Words that have similar meaning are associated with each other. Example- soft, gentle, mild.
- Association by contrast: Words that are opposite to each other are associated by contrast. Example-*light* and *heavy*.

Learning vocabulary in context helps in retaining the words in the long term memory. Hence, the teaching of vocabulary should not only be done in isolation but also in appropriate context. Moreover, different languages have different vocabulary system that differs in form, meaning, distribution and classification. In this context, use of mother tongue to teach vocabulary helps to overcome the problem of interference.

4.8 Role of Audience in Fluency Development

Spoken grammar exhibits flexible structures, hence utterances that are accurately structured are least expected in spoken discourse. There are many kinds of responses from the audience/listener that signals the speaker to continue, monitor or terminate their speech. These responses are discussed below

- Continuer response tokens are an aid to maintain fluency in speech. These responses which are from the audience motivate speakers to carry on with their talks. Minimal response token like *uhmm*, *mmm* are the continuer response token in spoken discourse . The authors have described minimal responses as “short utterances (for example *yeah*) and non-word vocalisations” (O’Keeffe et al, 2007, p.142) and non minimal responses as “mostly adverbs or adjectives (for example *good*, *really great*, *absolutely*) or short phrases/minimal clauses (such as *you’re not serious*, *Is that so?*)” (p.142-43).
- Convergence response tokens: These are used when audience shows degree of agreement with the speaker or when the topic of discussion or conversation is not interesting. Usually, non minimal response tokens signal the speaker to either shift, change or end the topic. Example- *got it!* is a convergence response token.
- Engagement tokens: These show the greater degree of involvement with the speaker’s talk. The authors say that “They signal the addressee’s enthusiasm, surprise, shock, and disgust etc. at what the speaker is saying without taking over the turn” (p.152). These tokens use non-minimal responses which consist of one word response such as *superb*, *definitely*, *fantastic* etc. and short phrases such as *that’s ok*, *that’s true* etc.
- Context-specific functions: Many responses are confined to certain context. For example the response *certainly* by the waiter to the guest at hotel is more appropriate than the response *definitely* in the conversation given below:

A(Guest): Can I get a glass of water?

B(Waiter): Yes, certainly.

The assertion that these responses are necessary for gaining fluency in speech are supported by the authors who say that “without response tokens, interactions would very often fail because speakers would perceive their message as not being well received” (p.156). Hence, “listenership” (p.157) is very important for a successful communication. The audience before whom students are rehearsing to develop speaking should give students positive response tokens as this may help them to shed their fear and motivate them to perform their best. Harmer (1983) has stated that speakers learn a lot from the behaviour of their audience. Therefore, the size (small, medium or large), proficiency level as compared to the speaker (less proficient, equally proficient or more proficient) and types (familiar, unfamiliar, or a mixed group of both) of audience should be adjusted time and again in order to put the speaker at ease when they are practicing to speak. The strategy to tailor the number and nature of the audience continuously for a certain interval of time may help students to develop fluency in their ESL speech.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed some strategies that may be a part of teaching oral fluency to UG ESL students at AMU. Teaching to use fillers artistically, developing context-based vocabulary among students, teaching phonetics and phonological processes, emphasizing utility of formulaic utterances and participation of audience play a significant role in improving fluency.

Chapter 5

Designing Activities

5.1 Introduction

Designing of activities is a very crucial aspect for teaching fluency. It takes into account various factors. It is important to include the dimensions of task based language teaching (TBLT) in classroom while preparing activities. Hence, this chapter discusses the factors that are important for designing activities and different kinds of tasks. Further, this chapter contains various guided and free activities to be practiced at beginner's, intermediate and advanced levels keeping in view the results of this research.

5.2 Task-Based Language Teaching

TBLT is a communicative approach in language teaching that helps learners to get rid of monotonous learning situations which exists in traditional classrooms. It aims to use authentic texts to arouse the interest of the learners in the learning process. According to Nunan (2004), TBLT co-ordinates the language learnt in classroom and the language used beyond the classroom. Besides, it also makes the learners realize that they are the ones who are contributing in the learning. This motivates them intrinsically to carry out tasks efficiently. Shaila & Trudell (2010) asserted that the students are required to develop critical thinking when they are learning in the universities. As suggested by the advocators of top-down view of language development, the learners should be encouraged to participate in discourse first so that they could master to make well formed sentences through this discourse (Nunan,

2004). In the view of Nunan (2004), successful oral communication involves the development of the following aspects:

- the ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly;
- mastery of stress , rhythm , intonation patterns;
- an acceptable degree of fluency;
- transactional and interpersonal skills;
- skills in taking short and long speaking turns;
- skills in the management of interaction;
- skills in negotiating meaning;
- conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers);
- skills in knowing about and negotiating purposes for conversations;
- using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers.

(p.32)

Bygate (1987) has suggested that learners should be able to negotiate meanings and acquire skills to manage an interaction. The former stands for successfully imparting the intended message while the latter involves manners of turn-taking, initiating a conversation, managing it and terminating it. Nunan (2004) has mentioned a framework for TBLT in which real-world/ target tasks, pedagogical tasks and enabling tasks are talked of. The diagram below depicts the framework:

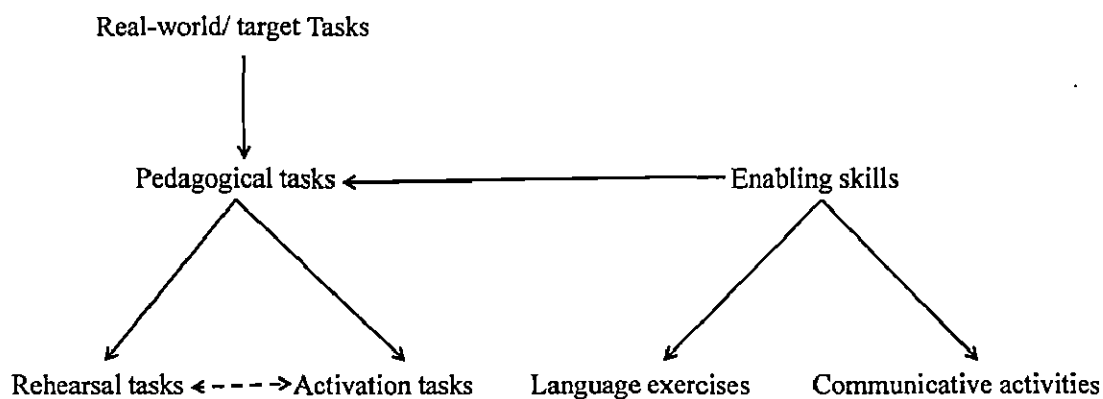


Fig. 5.1.A Framework for TBLT (Nunan 2004, p.25)

According to Nunan (2004), a language teacher should convert the real-world task into pedagogical one in order to create opportunities for learning in the classroom. These tasks are then placed on a continuum which ranges from rehearsal tasks to activation tasks. The rehearsal tasks have been defined as those which “bear a clear and obvious relationship to its corresponding real world counterpart” (p.20) and activation tasks are those which are “ designed not to provide learners with an opportunity to rehearse some out-of-class-performance but to activate their emerging language skills” (p.20). So, the learners have to start reproducing the language and gradually move towards the creativity in the language use.

Talking about the enabling skills, Nunan (2004) says that this tends to develop such skills which lead to the authentic communication. These skills were subdivided into language exercises and communicative activities. The communicative activities are presented as those which

represent a kind of ‘ half-way house’ between language exercises and pedagogical tasks. They are similar to language exercises in that they provide manipulative practice of a restricted set of language items. They resemble pedagogical tasks in that they have an element of meaningful communication.

(Nunan, 2004, p.24)

5.3 Definitions and Characteristics of Tasks

There have been many approaches to define tasks by different researchers. Some of the definitions are as follow:

Long (1985) defines a task as:

[a task is] a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, taking a hotel reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination and helping someone across a road. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. (p.89)

The above definition is neither a technical nor a linguistic one (Nunan, 1989). Other definition of task given by dictionary of applied linguistics by Richard, Platt and Weber (1986) is as follow:

an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command, may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative...since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake. (p.289)

In this definition, the task is viewed in pedagogical aspect. There is another definition by Breen (1987)

... any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning- from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision making.
(p. 23)

This definition suggests that aims, objectives, materials to be used, planning procedure and the expected outcomes are important while designing tasks. Further, Nunan (1989) has defined task as:

...as a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focussed on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right. (p.10)

Thus, Nunan (1989) focussed mainly on meaning rather than form as an objective of a task. The definition of task by Nunan (1989) reveals that language is necessarily involved in each task that is linked to language teaching and learning because the aim of the task "is to elicit language use" (Ellis, 2003, p.2). Murphy (2003) says that the manipulation of characteristics of task and the conditions in which they are carried out can help an ESL learner to achieve his/her goal of attaining accuracy, fluency and complexity. Skehan (as cited in Murphy, 2003) claims that a learner cannot equally pay his/her attention to all the three goals of the task. Hence, task designers should

consider the pedagogic outcome of the task. Murphy (2003) has further outlined the factors which affect the outcome of learning. These are as follows:

- Learner's contribution
- Aim of the task
- Content of the task
- The environment of the task.

Hence, the author says that the expected outcome may vary for different tasks because task as a workplan may change in the course of its execution. Breen (as cited in Murphy, 2003) has stated that a learner adopts an achievement orientation when the task matches his/her needs otherwise they have survival orientation towards the completion of the task. Therefore a teacher must perceive the needs of learners for successful learning process. For the development of fluency, Murphy (2003) has used fluency focussed tasks that took into account the following conditions:

- The task was structured to minimize the load on cognition.
- The topic was familiar so that students could retrieve information easily.
- Planning time was zero.
- Monologic task was preferred to dialogic as interactive tasks require learners to respond spontaneously which may hinder fluency.

5.4 Planning for Tasks

Planning is the natural process that is evident in written/spoken discourse. According to Ellis (2005), planning is a problem-solving activity as the speaker/writer undergoes a selection procedure for linguistic devices in order to express himself/herself. There are various levels at which planning takes place. This can be either done before

beginning the task or while doing the task. The following figure explains the kinds of planning involved in a task:

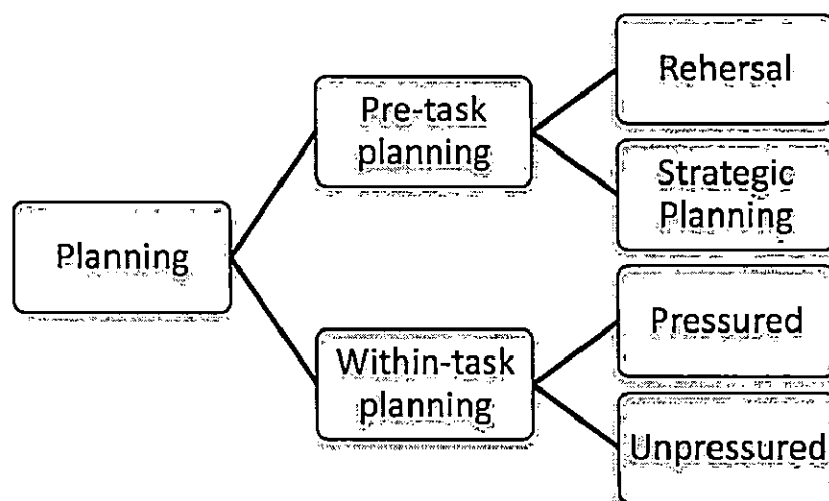


Fig 5.2 Types of Planning

(Ellis 2005, p.4)

Here rehearsal means that the task is repeated before the actual practice. It helps them to get prepared for their performance. The strategic planning requires the learners to decide the way in which the content will be encoded and how those encodings would be verbalized. As mentioned by Kawauch (2005), planning relieves the load of on-line processing and this eases out the stressful communication. It also helps the learners to retrieve the maximum linguistic knowledge which yields better results during speech production. Kawauch (2005) believed that strategic planning helps a lot in promoting oral fluency. Citing Swain (1993), Kawauchi (2005) has indicated that learners should be made to utilize their resources. They should try to think over their output so that they can modify their production in order to make themselves more comprehensible. This can be done by adopting various communication strategies.

5.5 Components of a Task

There are six components of a task which is diagrammatically depicted in Fig. 5.3.

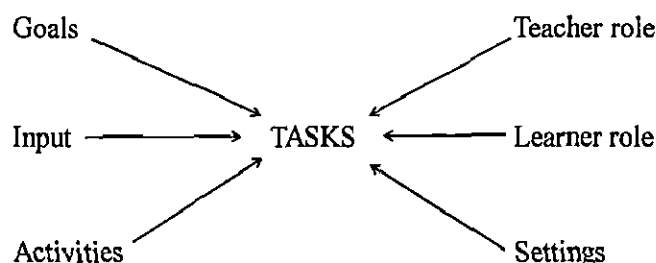


Fig. 5.3 Components of tasks

(Nunan, 1989, p.48)

Each component of a communicative task is discussed below:

- a) Goals: They help in binding the tasks with the curriculum. It is important to make clear the intention for designing any particular task. Goals can be classified in the following way.

<i>Goal type</i>	<i>Example</i>
Communicative	- establish and maintain interpersonal relations, and through this to exchange information, ideas, opinions, attitudes and feelings, and to get things done.
Socio-cultural	- have some understanding of everyday life patterns of their contemporary age group in the target language speech community. This will cover their life at home, at school and at leisure.
Learning-how-to-learn	- to negotiate and plan their work over a certain time span, and learn how to set themselves realistic objectives and how to devise the means to attain them.
Language and cultural awareness	- to have some understanding of the systematic nature of language and the way it works.

(Nunan, 1989, p.49)

A task may include all the above goals or may just focus on one. Therefore, a goal should be communicative in order to have communicative outcomes.

b) Inputs: They lead to the initiation of a task. They should also focus on the communicative goal. These can be taken from real life situations, like- photographs, recipe, paragraph from newspaper, e-mails, etc. Brosnan et al (1984) has supported the use of real world materials by saying that:

- Language is naturally used
- Learners have to work with little printed texts.
- Provision of “non-linguistic clues” (p.58) help them to get the meaning easily. (as cited in Nunan,1989)

c) Activities: These will specify what learners are going to do with the inputs they are provided with. They deal with the action of learners. There are many types of activities but these activities are generally characterized in three ways:

- Authenticity: The activities to be used in the classroom should be authentic. They must reflect the situations of a real world so that learners do not find them useless. The use of language in these activities should be communicative.
- Skill-getting and Skill-using: According to Rivers and Temperley (1978), the activities can be further divided on the basis of whether they are related to skill getting or skill using (as cited in Nunan 1989). These are concerned with controlled practice activities and transfer activities. The former is concerned with the manipulation of the syntax and phonology, while the latter is related to transfer of the acquired “...linguistic forms to the comprehension and production of communicative language” (Nunan, 1989, p.61).

- Accuracy and Fluency: The activities used in the classroom can be accuracy-focussed or fluency-focussed. This is merely dependant on the role of teachers and learners during the implementation of the activity. Brumfit (1984) mentions that language taught which is subjected to evaluation later, is categorized under skill getting and are accuracy-focused (as cited in Nunan, 1989).

d) Role of the learner: Nunan(1989) has presented a list of roles a learner have in various teaching methods. These are:

- The learner is the passive recipient of outside stimuli;
- The learner is an interactor and negotiator who is capable of giving as well as taking;
- The learner is a listener and performer who has little control over the content of learning;
- The learner is involved in a process of personal growth;
- The learner is involved in a social activity, and the social and interpersonal roles of the learner cannot be divorced from psychological learning process;
- Learners must take responsibility for their own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning-how-to-learn.

(Nunan, 1989, p.80)

Hence it can be said that authentic activities should involve learner as an independent one, and the one who is able to creatively deal with the activities in the learning situation. However, a learner should adopt those strategies of learning that suits him/her the best. There is a variety of learning strategies given by Rubin and Thompson (1982) which help the learners to become an independent self (as cited in

Nunan,1989). Some of these strategies are-mnemonics, keeping a positive view on errors and knowing the gravity of errors they make, guessing from the context, learning formulaic routines and using different styles of speech and writing.

e) Teacher's role: The teacher has been assigned different roles in different language teaching methods. While some methods make learning totally dependent on teachers, the others keep them as a facilitator, a guide or a consultant. Richards and Rogers (1986) has mentioned that the role of a learner is related to the issues mentioned below:

- The types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill, e.g. whether that of practice director, counsellor or model.
- The degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place.
- The degree to which the teacher is responsible for content.
- The interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners.

(p.24)

Thus, a teacher's role depends on the role a learner has been assigned in the activity.

f) Setting: It deals with the arrangements to be made in the classroom for carrying out a task. It may be that, the whole classroom participates or they are divided into groups, or they work in pairs. Setting is also a very important aspect to be taken care of while designing the activities for language classrooms.

5.6 Gradation of Tasks

Grading is a process where the organization of learning content is ordered in a certain sequence. It is done in order to ease out the teaching and learning process. It can be defined as:

the arrangement of the content of a language course or a textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way. Gradation would affect the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills, etc. are presented. Gradation may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English, or its importance for the learner.

(Richards, Platt & Weber 1986, p.125)

In this research work, guided and free activities are further graded so that when they are introduced to the second language learners of English at AMU, they are confident enough to start from the basic level. They are gradually exposed towards the activities that require greater cognitive load.

Grading of tasks depends on many factors. These are as follows:

- **Input:** The difficulty of a task is determined by the kind of inputs it involves. If the inputs are supported by diagrams, pictures, tables, graphs, then it is easier for the students to carry out the task. Thus, inputs should vary for different activities which are graded so that the learners are relaxed.
- **Learners:** According to Brindley (as cited in Nunan, 1989), learners' factors not only include their background knowledge, but also their confidence, motivation, pace of learning, competence in different skills of language and awareness of the culture. Thus before implementing any tasks, it is necessary to ponder over the following points:
 - i) Level of confidence necessary to carry out the task.
 - ii) Whether the task gives motivation to the students or not.
 - iii) Whether the task requires some familiarity with learning skills.

- iv) Whether the learner would be able to manage the learning material handed over to him/her or the task should be divided into manageable parts.
- v) Whether the task requires cultural awareness or not.

(Brindley, as cited in Nunan, 1989)

- Activity- Nunan (1989) has stated that

In recent years, with the increasing use of authentic texts, there has been a tendency to control difficulty not by simplifying the input to which learners are exposed, but by varying the difficulty of the activities which learners are expected to carry out. (p. 104)

Grading the activities would make the students feel comfortable in learning as well as using the language. Apart from the above discussed factors, activities can be graded on the basis of cognitive load they demand. Candlin and Nunan (1987) has given a scheme which has four levels (as cited in Nunan 1989). These levels are mentioned below:

- i) Recognition of the kind of inputs made available to the learners.
- ii) Making sense of the input provided.
- iii) Exploring deep into the information given and thus exhibiting the ability to hypothesize, infer or make judgement.
- iv) Ability to transfer and apply the understanding of information to other genre or for other purposes.

Further, it has been said that tasks can be designed in a way where “there is a gradual increase in cognitive complexity without dramatically raising the cognitive load” (p.111). Therefore, gradation of a task is done in the light of its complexities.

Prabhu's (1987) experience on the Bangalore project has revealed certain other factors which determine the difficulty of a task. These are discussed below:

- Information provided: The amount and type of information handled will affect difficulty.
- Reasoning needed: The number of steps or cognitive operations (e.g. deduction, inference or calculation) will affect difficulty.
- Precision needed: Difficulty increases with the degree of precision called for.
- Familiarity with constraints: Learners' knowledge of the world and familiarity with purposes and constraints will affect difficulty.
- Degree of abstractness: Working with concepts is more difficult than working with the names of objects or actions.

(Prabhu, 1987, p.87-8)

It can be concluded from the above viewpoints that difficulty of a task may pose a challenge for the learners or it may assist them in learning. Thus, designing of activities needs a lot of considerations in ESL classrooms.

5.6.1 Specifications on Graded Activity

Nunan (1989) has given a list of specifications for the graded activities. The list below has focussed activities meant only for speaking skill.

Beginner

Social and Interpersonal

- Ask for personal information (name, age, address).
- Take part in short, contextualised dialogues focussing on exchange of interpersonal information.
- Inquire about and express capability and lack of capability.

Informational

- Instructive
- Give simple instructions to other members of the class.

Descriptive

- Ask for the name of common objects inside and outside the classroom.
- Give short aural description of familiar objects and people.

Affective

- Recite songs and rhymes.

Pre-Intermediate

Social and Interpersonal

- Respond to requests for information about interests.
- Respond to and make requests and offers.

Informational

- Instructive
- Give a sequence of oral instructions to classmates.

Descriptive

- Give a short oral description of self and others.
- Give a short oral description of a picture relating to topic areas.

Narrative

- Listen to and read short descriptive texts and answer questions requiring the making of inferences.
- Talk about future events.
- Describe a linked sequence of past events.

Affective

- Identify the emotional state of a speaker from tone and intonation.

Intermediate

Social and Interpersonal

- Use an appropriate conversational style.
- Use the following conversational strategies- seeking turns, holding the floor.
- Use appropriate non-verbal behaviour.

Informational

- Instructive
- Give a set of aural instructions on how to make or assemble something.

Descriptive

- Initiate and respond to requests for facts, opinion and attitudes relating to aural and written descriptive texts.

Narrative

- Initiate and respond to requests for facts, opinions and attitudes relating to aural and written narrative texts.
- Retell narratives in own words.

Affective

1. Telling one's own imagination.

(Nunan ,1989, p.113-15)

5.7 Types of Activities

In order to stimulate interactive language use, it is important to understand the types of activities. Prabhu (1987) has mentioned three kinds of activities which are as follow:

- Information- gap activity- In these activities, a gap is created in the information which has to be either encoded or decoded by the participants. For example- a dumb charade game. This activity expects learners to fill the gaps in the information completely and correctly.
- Reasoning gap activity- It aims at inference or deducing some new information from the given piece of information. It is highly cognitive in nature. For example- guessing the strength of the classroom in a particular week on the basis of the information about the holidays in that very week.
- Opinion gap activity- Here, a situation demands one to express his/her preference, belief or attitudes. For example- discussion on a political issue. It is mainly open-ended activity where one is not bound to any kinds of limitations.

(As cited in Nunan, 1989)

Clark (1987) has given seven types of communicative activities which help learners in:

- Solving problems by interacting socially with others.
- Establishing and maintaining relationships. The discussion on any topic leads the participants to exchange information, ideas, opinions, etc.
- Searching for certain information that is required for a given purpose.
- Listening, reading, processing and using the information.
- Working on the creativity. For example: creating an imaginative story

Further, Pattison (1987) has also talked about seven types of activities which are as follow:

- Questions and answers: This is like the information gap activity. It can be used to practise any structure, function or notion.

- Dialogues and role-plays: These activities make the learners to enact some script where they learners are given freedom to say a dialogue of their own rather than just repeating a given text of dialogue.
- Matching activities: The participants have to match the pairs that go together.
- Communication Strategies: The activities are so designed that they motivate the students to practice various communication strategies.
- Pictures and picture stories: Various communicative activities can be created with the help of pictures. For example- rearranging the jumbled pictures etc.
- Puzzles and problems- These kinds of activities require learner to use their creativity, reasoning and guess work.
- Discussions and decisions: Here some decisions are taken on the basis of some discussions where the learners collect and share information.

The type of activities proposed by Clark (1987) focussed the use of real world, while that of Pattison were designed for pedagogic use. It is necessary to use such activities in classroom that take into account the interactive exposure to English. This will help students to participate in the process of negotiation.

5.8 Guided Activities

As the findings of the survey reveal that vocabulary and pronunciation are the problematic skills for the students at AMU, the activities are either adopted or adapted from various sources to improve their efficiency in those skills. Besides, various other activities are developed with an expectation to improve their oral fluency. Most of the activities are in the form of a game. The purpose is to make the students use language unconsciously. After finishing the game, the students are to be rewarded with some beads which are the game markers. It is expected that through these activities the

students will lose their fear and hence their anxiety (as in chapter 2 the result reveals that fluency and anxiety is highly related) will be reduced.

5.8.1 Level: Beginner's

5.8.1.1 Activity 1

Adverb charade

Aim: The aim of this activity is to familiarize the students with some adverbs which will help them improve their vocabulary and help them ask yes/no questions. The teacher will reward the students with game markers for the number of correct responses.

Organization: Students have to work in pairs.

Preparation: 60 small pieces of paper

Procedure: Step 1: The pieces of paper are distributed so that each student receives two. On one piece of paper he/she writes a simple action, e.g. drinking a glass of water, writing a letter, getting ready; and on the other an adverb, e.g. quickly, badly, hastily, etc. All the pieces of paper are put in two piles face down. One pile is for the pieces of papers on which some action is written and the other pile contains the adverbs written on pieces of paper. The piles are arranged in a way in which the actions written on the papers collocate with the adverb in the corresponding pile.

Step 2: At first the teacher picks one piece of paper from each pile and enacts the action and adverb. The teacher then asks the class to guess the answer. After guiding them how to carry out the activity, the teacher divides the class into small groups. In this game, the teacher has to provide the class with some conversational expressions so that the students feel easy and comfortable while guessing the mime.

The expressions which are to be given to the class are as follows:

- Is it?
- Do you mean....?
- I guess you want to say.....
- I think..... is the right answer.

Step 3: Students from each group have to come in pairs to the front of the class. One draws a piece of paper from the adverb pile and the other from the action pile. Both mime their action in the manner described by the adverb. The rest of the groups guess the answer with help of conversational expressions given to them. The group which knows the answer is expected to raise the hand. If they are correct, they earn a bead or else the other group who raised their hand later gets the chance. The group with the large number of beads is the winner.

Comments: This activity is adapted and has used the concept of Total Physical Response teaching method. Miming is a very helpful language activity as it focuses on the non-verbal communication which is an important aspect in communication. (Friederike, 1984)

5.8.1.2 Activity 2

Pronunciation Practice

Aim: The aim of this activity is to make the students pronounce words intelligibly. Through this activity, the students will realize that good pronunciation helps one to speak English confidently and fluently.

Organization: The class is divided into groups of three: student A, student B and student C. The pronunciation of student A is better than student B in each group. Student C acts as an observer who keeps a check that the group talks in English and the game is played fairly. The teacher exchanges the student C of each group with the other ones in a way that each group has an observer of some other group. The observer

is provided with game markers which are given to the group for each correct response. Therefore, if a group has less game marker in the first part of the activity, it tends to work harder to collect more game markers in part two of the game. At the end of the game (i.e. after the completion of part 1, part 2 and part 3), the game markers of each group are counted. Those who earn the maximum number of beads become the winner.

Preparation: List of words. This activity will be carried out in three parts.

Part One

Procedure: Student A will read aloud the given list of words for student B. After listening carefully to A, student B will match each word on the left with the word on the right which has the same initial consonant (sound, not letter), and put the appropriate number in front of the word. An example is given. The words in the left-hand column below begin with 22 different consonants. The words in the right-hand columns begin with the same 22 consonants, but in a different order. The group that gets the maximum number of beads in minimum time wins the game.

List of words:

1	bag		tomato
2	cat		Czech
3	cent		yacht
4	check		loose
5	dude		There
6	fan		guess
7	gem		Dare
8	leap		Vote
9	meeK		kneel
10	nail		Kite
11	zoom		Wild

12	pain		holy
13	ptomaine		pest
14	room		phone
15	shave		jest
16	then		zest
17	thick		send
18	vest		rhyme
19	weight		main
20	whole		thin
21	young		boom
22	gas		chef

Part Two

Procedure: Student A will read aloud the other list of words for student B. After listening carefully to A, student B will match each word on the left with the word on the right which has the same final consonant. An example is given. The words in the left-hand columns below end with 21 different consonants. The words in the right-hand columns have the same final consonants, but in a different order. The group that gets the maximum number of beads in minimum time wins the game in this part.

List of words:

1	Both		Love
2	Car		rogue
3	Clothe		dome
4	Dumb		grud
5	Fate		smooth
6	Globe		ridge
7	Graph		sane
8	Lace		beige
9	Look		lung
10	Odd		gruff
11	phrase		eight

12	pole		Fade
13	rage		Toll
14	rich		Daze
15	rouge		Lock
16	rug		Loss
17	save		Hope
18	sign		Youth
19	soap		Care
20	tongue		Ash
21	wash		Witch

Part Three

Procedure: Student A will read aloud the third list of words for student B. After listening carefully to A, student B will match the final consonant of each word in the left-hand columns with the initial consonant of a word in the right-hand columns—if there is such a match. An example is given. The group that gets the maximum number of beads in minimum time wins the game in this part.

List of words:

1	beige		Pitch
2	breathe		Team
3	chip		Kill
4	coach		Bad
5	comb		dame
6	cough		Goal
7	door		choke
8	face		Jell
9	lane		Fun
10	ledge		Think
11	lice		Safe

12	maid		vain
13	meat		they
14	nave		zone
15	nose		mode
16	robe		name
17	rogue		lace
18	rung		rake
19	rush		yell
20	ruth		wet
21	sail		head
22			shift

After completing the above three parts, student A and student B have to discuss the following questions:

- Two of the words in the left-hand columns have final consonants for which there is no match in initial position. What are the words?
- Three words in the right-hand columns have initial consonants for which there is no match in final position. What are they?

(Kreidler, 2004, p.30-1)

Part Four

Student A will read aloud the third list of words for student B. After listening carefully to A, student B has to identify three consonants in each word. These words have three consonants separated by two vowels (CVCVC). The first has been done as an example.

- Cherub tʃ-r-b Thistle Ptomaine
- Garage Havoc Possess
- Philip Jealous Gingham
- Receipt Package Righteous
- Machine Kenneth Sheriff
- Budget Disease Nothing

(Kreidler, 2004, p. 41)

5.8.1.3 Activity 3

Strip story

Aims: The aim of this activity is to help the students sequence a story. This will help them to speak coherently.

Organization: Students will be divided into two groups of 31.

Preparation: A story with as many sentences as there are members in each group. Each sentence is written on a separate strip of paper.

Procedure: Each member of each group receives a strip of paper with one or two sentences on it. S/He is asked not to show his/her sentence to anybody but to memorize it within two minutes. After two minutes all the strips of paper are collected. The teacher briefly explains the task: 'all the sentences you have learnt make up a story. Work out the correct sequence without writing anything down.' From now on the teacher should refuse to answer any questions or give any help. The group which finishes the sequence first becomes the winner. One of the students from the winning team presents the sequence before the class. A discussion follows on how everybody felt during this exercise.

(Friederike, 1984, p. 47)

31 Strips to be distributed in each group.

THE BEAR SAYS NORTH

(Finnish Folk Tale)

- ONE DAY, while Osmo the Bear was prowling about the forest, he caught a grouse.

.....

- "Pretty good," he thought to him-self. "Won't the other animals be surprised when they hear old Osmo has caught a grouse?"

- He was very proud of his feat and he wanted all the world to know of it.

- So, holding the grouse carefully in his teeth without hurting it, he began parading it up and down the forest paths.

- "They'll certainly envy me this nice plump grouse," he thought.

- "They won't be so ready to call me awkward and lumbering after this!"

- Presently Mikko the Fox sauntered by.

- He at once saw that Osmo was showing off, and he made up his mind the Bear should not get the admiration he wanted.

- So he pretended not to see the grouse at all. Instead he pointed his nose upward and sniffed.

- "Urn! urn!" grunted Osmo, trying to attract attention to himself.

- "Ah," said Mikko in an offhand way, "is that you, Osmo?"

- Which way is the wind blowing today? Can you tell me?"

- Osmo could not, of course, answer without opening his mouth, so he grunted, hoping Mikko would see the grouse, and understand why he couldn't speak.

- But the Fox didn't glance at him at all. With his nose still pointing upward, he kept sniffing the air.

-
- "It seems to be from the south," said he.

-
- "It is from the south, isn't it Osmo?"

-
- "Urn! urn!" repeated Osmo, growing more impatient every moment.

-
- "Not from the south, you say?"

-
- Then which way is it blowing?"

-
- By this time the Bear was so cross with Mikko, he forgot all about his grouse, he just opened his mouth, and roared out, "North!"

-
- Of course the moment he opened his mouth the grouse flew away.

-
- "Now, see what you've done!" he stormed angrily. "You've made me lose my nice plump grouse!"

-
- "I?" said Mikko. "What had I to do with it?"

-
- "You kept asking me about the wind until I opened my mouth -that's what you did!"

-
- The Fox shrugged his shoulders. "Why did you open your mouth then?"

-
- "Well, you can't say 'north' with-out opening your mouth, can you?" the Bear demanded.

-
- The Fox laughed and laughed.
-

- "See here, Osmo, don't blame me.

.....

- Blame yourself. If I'd had the grouse in my mouth and you'd asked me about the wind, I'd never have said 'north!'"

.....

- "What would you have said?" asked the Bear.

.....

- Mikko, the rascal, laughed harder than ever. Then he clenched his teeth together and said "EAST"!

.....

(Friederike, 1984, p. 167)

5.8.1.4 Activity 4

Unfinished sentences

Aim: In this activity students will be able to express their views.

Organization: Two equal groups are to be formed. The chairs (as many as students are there) are to be arranged in a double circle. The chairs of the inward circle would be facing outward and the chairs of the outward circle would be facing inward. In this way, each participant of the inner circle would be facing the one sitting on the chairs of the outer circle.

Preparation: A handout for each student.

Procedure: Each student will be receiving a handout from the teacher and occupy a seat on the arranged chairs. There will always be two students facing each other. Each of them has to complete the first item on the handout and discuss about their sentences. After this, the students in the outer circle have to move on one chair to their left and complete the second sentence of the handout with a new partner. This process of moving on after completing the sentences continues until all the items of the given handout is completed. The role of the teacher is to monitor the activity so that students

feel the pressure to complete the activity within the assigned time and they use English only.

Handout for this activity:

- The funniest thing I ever saw.....
- If I had 24 hours to live.....
- On Saturdays I usually.....
- I feel best when people.....
- I'd like to spend a long holiday in.....
- I wish politicians would.....
- I have never.....
- Parents should always.....
- My children will.....
- This world would be a better place if.....
- The thing that worries me most is
- I never worry about.....
- Someday I am going to.....
- I like people who.....
- I Get very angry if.....
- I find it difficult to.....
- I'd like to be more.....and less.....
- I am not interested in.....
- Studying is.....
- If I could be somewhere else now, I'd.....

(Friederike, 1984, p. 94 & p.174)

5.8.1.5 Activity 5

Twenty things I'd like to do.

Aim: The students will state their likes and dislikes.

Organization: Students have to work individually and then in pairs.

Preparation: A list of codes and unfinished sentences.

Procedure: Students are asked to make a note of twenty things they would like to do.

They should feel free to jot down whatever comes in their mind. These lists are not shown to anyone. The students are asked to assign some codes to the items in their lists. They are encouraged to use the following codes.

List of codes

- \$ - If the activity is expensive.
- WF – If the activity involves other people (WF= with friends)
- A- If they would do this alone. (A= Alone)
- M or F – if they think their mother (M) or father (F) will enjoy this too.
- X – if the activity is mentally or physically harmful.

After assigning the above symbols to the items in their lists, they are divided into pairs. Now, they are supposed to use the following unfinished sentences to describe their lists to their partners.

- I have learnt from this exercise that.....
- I am surprised that.....
- I am pleased that.....
- I am worried that.....
- I do not mind that.....

The teacher also assigns one monitor for each pair so that they complete the activity and use English language only. They are supposed to complete the task in fifteen

minutes. After all the pairs are done with their lists, each student is called out and is asked to summarize the description given by their partners before the class.

(Friederike, 1984, p.91)

5.8.2 Level: Intermediate

5.8.2.1 Activity 1

Pronunciation Drill

Aim: The aim of this activity is to make the students pronounce and identify the homographs.

Preparation: Lists of words that have pictures or some written texts against them.

Organization: Students have to work in pairs.

Procedure: Each pair receives a list of words. Student A of each pair has to give the pronunciation of the first picture or text against each word in the list and student B has to do the same for the second picture or text against each word. They have to complete the task in ten minutes. The pair which completes the list first comes before the class and gives the answer. The answers would be judged by other pairs.

List of words:

- Read



Past tense of verb 'read'

- Dove

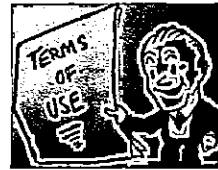


Past tense of verb 'dive'

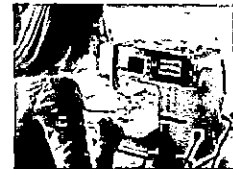
- Minute



- Use



- Sewer



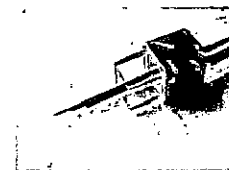
- Tear



- Wound



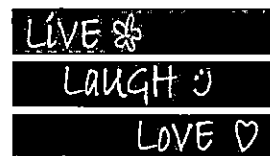
- Lead



- Wind



- Live



5.8.2.2 Activity 2

Match the expressions

Aim: The activity will familiarize the students with some of the expressions that are suitable for a particular context.

Organization: Students will be working in pairs.

Preparation: A handout.

Procedure: Each pair is given a handout which is divided into two parts Part-A and Part-B. Part-A of the handout comprises certain experiences related to a particular situation. Part-B consists of expressions to be used with the experience as mentioned in Part-B. Each student has to work with his/her partner and try to match each expression given in Part-B with one of the reasons stated in Part-A. They must not take more than five minutes to complete the activity.

Handout:

Part A

Q. Why questions can be awkward

Possible reasons:

- A. You don't know the answers
- B. The question implies some criticism of your argument/research/understanding etc.
- C. the questioner has misunderstood the issue
- D. the question cannot be answered simply or briefly
- E. you don't think the question is relevant to the discussion
- F. you want to finish talking about something else before you deal with the question

Part-B

Given below are the expressions that can be used for handling awkward questions.

- A. I take it you don't think/ believe/ accept.....?

- B. I don't really have any experience for that, but X might like to comment?
- C. I don't think there is enough evidence to say for sure.
- D. I have not have time to look into that, sorry.
- E. I really don't know.
- F. I think we should stick to the main issue here.
- G. I think we are going off the point a little.
- H. I was just coming to that.....
- I. I'll come back to that in a minute, if that's alright.
- J. I just wanted to.....
- K. I am not (quite sure)
- L. I am not absolutely sure, but I would guess that...
- M. I 'd need to think about that
- N. I have really no idea
- O. That isn't really my field, but perhaps X could say something about....?
- P. That's an important question, but it's really too complex to deal with now.
- Q. That's rather out of my field.
- R. That's really a whole different argument/ discussion/ topic.
- S. There is not really time to go into that now/ here.
- T. Well, I think you'd be wrong to assume that...
- U. You seem to be assuming that...

5.8.2.3 Activity 3

Opinion Gap

Aim: The students would be able to give proper tones to their utterances and would be able to pause appropriately at the required place.

Organization: Students would be divided into groups of five.

Preparation: A handout which describes qualities of a person. These are:

- Has sense of humor.
- Has a pleasant appearance.
- Has knowledge of subject.
- Has a clear speaking voice.
- Never gets angry.
- Is always ready to help us.
- Make us do interesting things in the class.
- Is always fair in her/his judgement.
- Is intelligent.

Also, a list of few unfinished sentences is given. These are:

- We think/feel_____.
- We would like the teacher_____.
- The first quality of a teacher should be_____.

Procedure: First of all, the teacher has to read out the unfinished sentences from the list and complete it before the class giving proper intonation and pausing. The teacher starts reading out sentences from the list with rising tone and end with falling tone to indicate the end of sentence or thought process. They are also instructed where not to pause. For example- We think the_____teacher should make_____us laugh.
(_____ symbolizes pause).

The groups are asked to discuss and come up with a common argument for ranking the qualities in their preference order. The students in the group are asked to add any other qualities to the list if they wish to. After discussing, the group has to select one member who will speak before the class about the opinions of his/her group with the help of the list of unfinished sentences.

(Bharati, 2012, p.119-20)

5.8.2.4 Activity 4

Storytelling with Pictures

Aim: The aim of this activity is to enable the students to generate a very short story using some clues given to them.

Preparation: Some boxes. Each box has four pictures.

Organization: Students are divided into groups of four.

Procedure: One member from each group is asked to take one box of pictures. Then the students have to make up a story that includes all the pictures. They are not supposed to write the story. Group members are provided with ten minutes of planning time in order to organize their story coherently. After ten minutes, they have to stop the discussion and one member of each group has to narrate the story before the class in five minutes. They are given a framework for storytelling which is as follows:

Time + Character + Event + Outcome + Moral

Also, they are provided with some fixed expressions to initiate the story. These are as follows:

- Once upon a time...
- One day....
- A long time ago...

The framework of the story and the fixed expressions will help the students to initiate and maintain a story line.

Warm-up session: The teacher narrates a simple story before them using the picture of a bunch of spinach, a sad boy, a cow, a man driving a bike.

Sample Story

A long time ago a little boy was walking along a busy road carrying a bunch of spinach. A fast bike passed by him. He got scared. The boy dropped that bunch of spinach and took a safe corner. When he came back to pick up the dropped spinach, he saw that a cow was chewing it up. This made him very sad and he went back to his home with a heavy heart.

It is explained to the students that the given framework is applied to the above story in the following way:

Time- A long time ago

Character- A little boy

Place- A busy road

Event- The bunch of spinach that the little boy was carrying got chewed up by a cow.

It happened because of someone's rash driving.

Outcome- The boy returned home with a heavy heart. The incident made him very sad.

Moral- People should not drive rashly as it may create a loss for others.

Comments- This simple and short story may give the students confidence that they can also narrate a story. Moreover, learners try to bring coherence in their text by using various inter and intra sentential linkers.

5.8.2.5 Activity 5

Vocabulary Drill

Aim: The students will be able to use appropriate words in a given context.

Organization: Students will work in pair.

Preparation: A handout for each pair. (Appendix A)

Procedure: Each pair will receive a handout. A text is given to them in which few words are left incomplete. The students are instructed to discuss and complete those words in accordance with the context in which they are used.

5.8.3 Level: Advanced

5.8.3.1 Activity 1

Pronunciation Drill

Aim: The aim of this activity is to make the students pronounce and identify the homophones.

Preparation: Lists of phonemic transcription of words and envelopes of pictures. (Appendix B)

Organization: Students have to work in pairs.

Procedure: Each pair receives a list of words and an envelope. The pictures also mention the parts of speech to which each of them belongs to. Student A of each pair has to select one picture from the envelope that pronounces same as that on the list and student B has to select the second picture from the envelope that goes with the corresponding item on the list. Similarly they have to work for the other words on the list. They have to complete the task in ten minutes.

After completing the above task each student should say a meaningful sentence combining the two homophones. An example has been given to help the students.

List of words:



Example- /ri:d/ -

(Verb)

(Noun)

Sentence- John reads a lot about the cultivation of reeds.

- | | | |
|------------|------|-------------|
| • /greit/- | Verb | Adjective |
| • /weðə/- | Noun | Conjunction |
| • /dju:/- | Noun | Conjunction |
| • /si:n/- | Noun | Verb |
| • /swi:t/- | Noun | Noun |
| • /rəud/- | Noun | Verb |
| • /sel/- | Verb | Noun |
| • /rait/- | Verb | Adjective |
| • /haia/- | Verb | Adjective |
| • /baŋk/- | Noun | Noun |
| • /feit/- | Noun | Noun |
| • /dai/- | Verb | Noun |

5.8.3.2 Activity 2

Values topics

Aim: The students will be able to describe and ask questions.

Organization: Students will work in the group of five.

Preparation: A board game, a dice and counters for each group. (Appendix C)

Procedure: Each player throws the dice and moves his counter forward accordingly. If his counter lands on a white square he tells the others in the group something about the topic on the square. If he/she lands on a 'free question' square, one of the other

students may ask him a question. The player concerned is allowed to refuse to answer the question, but he should say why he would not answer it.

(Friederike, 1984, p. 95-6)

5.8.3.3 Activity 3

Fill the bubbles

Aim: This activity will enable the students to speak coherently.

Organization: Students will be working in groups of five.

Preparation: A comic strip where bubbles are left blank. (Appendix D)

Procedure: Students in groups are required to fill up the blanks in the comic strips as quickly as possible. The group that finishes the activity first raises its hand. One of the members from the winner group comes before the class and tells the answer. He/she also shares with class the discussion of his/her group which led them to come up with the particular answer. Similarly, each group is instructed to share their answers and discussions before the class.

Comment: Discussions maximize the students' talk and "stimulate their interest and imagination"(Friederike, 1984,p.73). Moreover, every member in group unconsciously assumes some role during discussion. For example- someone may become an initiator, a summarizer or a grumbler.

5.8.3.4 Activity 4

Team Spirit

Aim: This activity will enable the students to negotiate their likes and dislikes with their partners.

Organization: Students will work in pairs.

Preparation: A list of activities.

Procedure: In pairs, students should try to come to some sort of agreement between each other on each of the activities given in the list. They must decide which is the: Most exciting, Most energetic, duller, Most dangerous, Safest, Most Restful, Most Rewarding, Most Mindless.

After discussing, students have to categorise the list of activities on the basis of the criteria given above and has to present their list before the class.

List of Activities:

Butterfly collecting	Reading
Learning a foreign language	Walking
Watching television	Mountain climbing
Playing the piano	Playing football
Stamp collecting	Sewing
Cooking	Skiing
Cycling	Fishing
Knitting	Swimming

(Brumfit, 1989, p.62)

5.8.3.5 Activity 5

Problem-Solving

Aim: The aim of this activity is to enable the students express their point of view with the given inputs.

Organization: The students will work in groups of six.

Preparation: An advertisement and a help box for each group

Procedure: After going through the advertisement, each group has to discuss a suitable accommodation for Mary who is new in a town. Students would be given help box so that they use English while discussing. Since there are six accommodations

listed in the advertisement, each member of each group should give their respective views on a single item in the advertisement. After the discussions are over, the groups are supposed to share their views with their teacher and also substantiate their points from the description given for Mary.

Description of Mary

Mary is 20 years old and works as a sales representative in an MNC which is located at Lajpat Nagar in Delhi. She is a pretty girl with a lively personality. She easily mingles with people and has a lot of friends. At present, she has no permanent address. She is looking for a place where she could live for three months. So far she is unsuccessful in her search for such kind of flat. These days, she is living with her friend but she sleeps on the floor.

Mary's parents live at a place which is quite far from her office. Although it is possible for her to live at her home and commute to Lajpat Nagar every day to work like other people, she wants to be independent. She wants to lead a life of her own.

Every day she buys a paper and goes through the advertisements. She visits and telephones flat agencies about three times a week.

She has been to see a number of different places in different parts of Delhi. Each time she is disappointed for one or the other reason.

Advertisements:

Advertisement 1

Fourth mad girl wanted for large sunny flat in Lajpat Nagar
Call at: 6787845536

Advertisement 3

Large double attic room.
Share kitchen with other occupants
Near Sarojini Nagar.
Call at: 6777555098

Advertisement 2

Accommodation available for young girl.
Evening meals and weekend food.
Telephone after 4:30. Friends would not be entertained. Call at: 6895636789

Advertisement 4

Professional lady requires another to share quiet, non-smoking house.
Interested one can contact at:
6556787655

Advertisement 5

Love peace and health food.

Away from city stress.

Ring Joseph before 12 at

6887653214 for free life

Advertisement 6

Small but comfortable room near

Lajpat Nagar.

Share with other friends too.

Call at: 6541236709

Use the table given below to express your view on Mary's suitable accommodation.

I	think don't think	the	first second	flat is very good for Mary	because	there's a kitchen to share love and peace there a tube station nearby
						it's large peaceful sunny comfortable quiet non-smoking free well-situated
						she has to share a kitchen has a lot of friends gets on well with people wants to lead life of her own
						she's not a mad type too young 18 lively

(Nunan, 1989, p. 151-52)

5.9 Free Activities

These kinds of activities provide learners with no or very little inputs. It is expected that after going through the guided activities learners would be confident enough to complete the assigned tasks fluently.

5.9.1 Level: Beginner

5.9.1.1 Activity 1

Pronunciation and Vocabulary Drill

Aim: This activity aims at improving the pronunciation and vocabulary of students.

Organization: Students will work in pair.

Preparation: A list of pair of words that differ by one or two vowel/consonant sounds and also in meaning.

Procedure: Student A of each pair chooses one of the questions from a pair like the ones below. After Student A asks the question (a) or (b), Student B tries to answer with the appropriate response. After answering, student B asks the next question to Student A. This process goes on till the list ends. They should try their best to pronounce the pair of words intelligibly.

List of pair of words

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| a. What does made mean? | a. What does pick mean? |
| b. What does mad mean? | b. What does peak mean? |
| a. What does main mean? | a. What does hurt mean? |
| b. What does man mean? | b. What does heart mean? |
| a. What does dessert mean? | a. What does boat mean? |
| b. What does desert mean? | b. What does bout mean? |
| a. What does scissor mean? | a. What does toil mean? |
| b. What does seizure mean? | b. What does trail mean? |
| a. What does rat mean? | a. What does lust mean? |
| b. What does rate mean? | b. What does last mean? |
| a. What does fat mean? | a. What does lick mean? |
| b. What does fate mean? | b. What does leak mean? |
| a. What does shine mean? | a. What does sake mean? |
| b. What does sheen mean? | b. What does sack mean? |
| a. What does hair mean? | a. What does read mean? |
| b. What does hear mean? | b. What does reed mean? |

a. What does **fend** mean?

b. What does **find** mean?

a. What does **raunch** mean?

b. What does **wrench** mean?

a. What does **lunch** mean?

b. What does **launch** mean?

a. What does **brain** mean?

b. What does **bran** mean?

(Gilbert , 2008)

5.9.1.2 Activity 2

Find the difference

Aim: It aims to enable students give reasons for their choice and to differentiate between the structures of language used in anecdotes and exaggerated texts.

Organization: Students will work in pairs.

Preparation: Handouts in which there are anecdotes and exaggerated texts.

(Appendix E)

Procedure: Each pair would be given a handout. Then the teacher will give an example of anecdote and exaggeration which are as follows:

Example of anecdote:

My grandfather had a weak memory. One day he was searching for his looking glasses and was very angry with everyone. He came to me and scolded very badly. I could not stop laughing when I found that he was wearing it as a hair band. We both laughed together endlessly.

Example of exaggeration:

- “My teacher gave me a lot of homework tonight. It will take me 10 years to finish it.”
- “He can run 5 km in one minute.”

After going through the examples, it is expected that they will understand the term anecdote and exaggeration. Now the students will begin the activity. In pairs, they are

directed to differentiate between the anecdotes and exaggerations from the handout. Also, they have to work out the reasons which helped them to differentiate the two. The pair which completes the activity first will state their answers with reasons before the class.

5.9.1.3 Activity 3

Chain story

Aim: This activity will enable students to respond spontaneously, i.e. they will get zero planning time to start the activity.

Organization: The whole class will work together.

Preparation: Small slips of paper with one noun/ verb/ adjective on each of them, as many pieces of paper as there are students.

Procedure: The teacher has to start the story by giving the first sentence, e.g. 'It was a stormy night in November.' A student sitting next to the teacher would continue the story. He/she may say up to three sentences and must include the word on his/her slip of paper. Similarly, the next student goes on with his slip of paper.

(Friederike, 1984, p.130-31)

5.9.1.4 Activity 4

Associating the words

Aim: This activity will enable the students to give comments on their choice.

Organization: Students will work individually.

Preparation: A list of words which will lead to some sort of comments.

Procedure: At first, the teacher will say a word from the list before the class. The students are instructed to associate any other word or phrase that comes quickly to their minds with the one said by the teacher. They should also give reasons for their choices and should not take more than two minutes to answer.

List of words

Beauty, Intelligent, Rain, Money, Politics, Poverty, Unemployment, English, Saturday, Sunday.

5.9.1.5 Activity 5

Read to Speak

Aim: This activity aims at helping the students to improve their discussing and questioning skills.

Organization: Students will work in pairs.

Preparation: Handouts of an argumentative text. (Appendix F)

Procedure: This activity is devised in the following ways:

Step 1: At first, students will scan the text to get as many ideas as possible. They will not take any notes at this point.

Step 2: After scanning the text, the teacher will assign the role of interviewer and interviewee to the students in pair. The interviewer is then directed to ask questions related to the content of the text. The interviewee will use the ideas or facts in the text to answer those questions.

Step 3: Students scan the text again to see if there are any other questions to ask. This time they take notes and write down some key words.

Step 4: The pairs conduct the interview again, but this time they switch roles. They can find new partners, but they must play a different role than they did in Step 2.

Step 5: A competition is organized to see which pair can best represent the text through their interview.

(Zhang, 2009, p.34)

5.9.2 Level: Intermediate

5.9.2.1 Activity 1

Pronunciation and Vocabulary Drill

Aim: The aim of this activity is to enable the students identify the difference in pronunciation of a word and its various forms and the vowel change in the various forms of the word. This will also enrich and enhance their vocabulary.

Organization: Students would work in groups of six.

Preparation: Sets of words on different strips of paper.

Procedure: At first each group is given all the strips of paper. Each member of a group should work on those strips one by one. They are asked to go through the set of words on those strips and remove the suffix of those words in order to identify the root words. When they complete the first strip, they would raise their hand and say their answers before the class. They shall explain which vowel has caused the difference in pronunciation of the root words and their forms. They must also explain how the two words differ in terms of their use. The group will fetch as many points as the number of correct responses in minimum time.

Example: Advertisement

The root word is ‘advertise’ and it contains the vowel /ai/ between the consonants /t/ and /z/ whereas ‘advertisement’ contains vowel /i:/ between the consonants /t/ and /z/.

The word advertisement is used as a noun and can be used in sentence “The advertisement that promotes selling of cigarettes has been banned all over the country.” The word “advertise” is used as a verb and can be used in sentence “Mitsubishi has advertised its new product in all the famous newspapers of the city.”

Strip 1:

Width, fifty, typical, derivative, divinity, Biblical, wilderness, precision and Palestinian.

Strip 2:

Kept, obscenity, supremacy, competitive, intervention and shepherd.

Strip 3:

Sanity, chastity, explanatory, profanity Spanish and inflammatory.

Strip 4:

Abundant, southern and pronunciation.

Strip 5:

Fodder, lost

Strip 6:

Phonic, composite, nostril, diagnostic and microscopic.

5.9.2.2 Activity 2**Story-telling**

Aim: This activity would enable students to tell a story that has exaggerations. It would help them to work with their imagination.

Preparation: A paper and a pen or pencil to jot down ideas.

Organization: Students will work individually and then in pair.

Procedure: The teacher will read out the story “The Unmatched Novelist” before the class which has lot of exaggerations. After listening to the story, students are expected to generate an exaggerated story of their own. The pre-activity phase will proceed in the following way:

1. At first, the teacher will ask if anyone can define the word exaggeration. If no one gives the answer, the teacher will give the following examples to make them familiar with the term exaggeration.
 - “It is so cold today. It is the coldest day in the history of the world!”
 - “My teacher gave me a lot of homework tonight. It will take me 10 years to finish it.”
 - “He can run 5 km in one minute.”
2. The teacher will read the story again and would ask the students to locate parts that seem untrue or unbelievable. It is important that they must identify the following exaggerated elements of the story.
 - The storyteller was only eight years old when he became a famous writer.
 - The storyteller stayed in a locked room for five days.
 - He took only five days to write a novel and that too of 350 pages.
 - He won a booker prize for that.
 - He took only two days to write his second novel of 400 pages.
 - He was rewarded with a trophy that was so heavy that it took 20 people to handle it.
3. Now the students would be asked to tell a story about their real or imagined accomplishment. They will be given 10 minutes as planning time to outline their story and make notes about the details they plan to exaggerate. Then they have to tell their story to different partners in shrinking time frame. This will help the students speak easily without pausing much. Teachers will make sure that students are not writing complete sentences during their

planning time. The partner is required to identify the exaggerated language used by the speaker and write it down.

4. The activity takes place in three rounds. The students line up in two rows facing each other.

Round 1: Students in Row 1 have three minutes to tell their stories to the student facing them in Row 2. Students in Row 2 listen for exaggerations and check their understanding with the storyteller. Students swap roles and repeat.

Round 2: Students in Row 1 move one place to the left to speak with a new partner. The same steps are followed as in Round 1, but students would be given a time limit of just two and a half minutes.

Round 3: Students in Row 1 again move one place to the left. Round 1 is again repeated, but this time students have just two minutes to tell their stories.
(Ryan, 2011, p.44-7)

The sample story is given below:

The Unmatched Novelist

When I was eight years old, I decided to write a novel. I really wanted to become the most famous novelist in the world.

One day I started to gather ideas on a sheet of paper. I stayed in a locked room for five days so that I can collect ideas without any disturbance. To my utter surprise, I had collected great ideas in those five days than expected. After taking some break, I again started my work. It took me about five days to jot down all the ideas together in the form of a novel. I was ready to get my novel of 350 pages published. My parents talked to many publishing houses and told them about my script. A world wide famous publisher agreed to publish my novel. This novel earned me name and fame.

One fine morning, my parents got a call that my novel has been nominated for booker prize. We were very happy. In the award ceremony, I received a very heavy trophy that was handled by twenty people. After the award ceremony, I again started to write my second novel. This time I took only two days to write a novel of 400 pages.

You would not believe that I became a great writer then. But alas! I have quit writing as I have to complete my studies.

5.9.2.3 Activity 3

Draw, Pair and Share

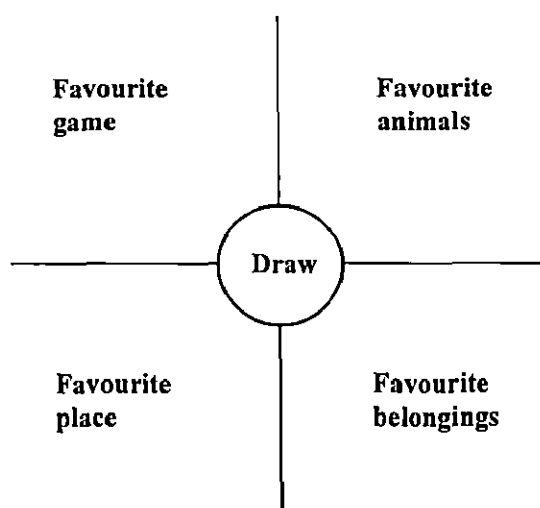
Aim: The students will be able to express their likes.

Organization: At first the students will work individually and then in pairs.

Preparation: A handout for each student

Procedure: The students are instructed to draw individually as indicated in the handout. They must not write anything on the handout. After completing the drawing, they would work with their partners and will discuss their handouts. They shall try to guess what the drawing represents and shall share why that particular animal, place, game and belonging are their favourites. A monitor is assigned to each pair so that both the partners use English to answer each other queries.

Handout:



5.9.2.4 Activity 4

Rank the Qualities in order

Aim: This activity will develop team spirit among students enabling them to agree or disagree on an issue in a group.

Organization: Students will work in groups.

Preparation: A handout for each group in which the following qualities of a good teacher is given.

Handout:

- Sense of Humour
- Honesty
- Love of children
- Knowledge of subject
- Flexibility
- Clear speaking voice
- Enthusiasm for teaching
- Pleasant appearance
- Fairness
- Ability to create interest
- Ability to keep order
- Intelligence

(Ur, 1991, p.123)

Procedure: Each group receives a handout. They are instructed to agree together in what order of priority they would put the qualities of a good teacher given in the handout. The activity should not take more than five minutes. After completing the

activity, each group is asked to justify the order in which they have arranged the qualities of a good teacher.

5.9.2.5 Activity 5

Vocabulary Drill

Aim: Through this activity, students would be able to understand and use proper words according to the context of their occurrence. They will be able to differentiate between the meanings of words which belong to same semantic field.

Organization: Students will work in the group of four.

Preparation: Few cards on which words of a particular semantic field are written.

(Appendix G)

Procedure: Groups would be given cards. On each card, four or three words of a particular semantic field are written. A paragraph/sentence is also given on the same card in which few words are left out. In the group, students discuss and fill the blanks with the help of the words given on that very card. They must try to find out the possible difference in the meanings of those words. The group who finishes first comes before the class and one of the group members speaks out the complete sentence/paragraph stating the reason for their choice of words for each blank. The other groups judge the answer of the team that spoke before the class. The group will earn as many points as they have correctly used each word on the cards. The game will be further carried out for other cards too.

5.9.3 Level: Advanced

5.9.3.1 Activity 1

Pronunciation Drill

Aim: The following activity would enable the students to use proper tone (falling, rising, fall-rise, rise-fall) in their utterance in order to emphasize the information they intend to.

Organization: Students will work in pairs.

Preparation: A list of sets of sentences for each pair.

Procedure: Each pair will receive a list of sentences. They are asked to read sets of sentences on the list. The material in parentheses against each sentence is intended to explain the meaning of the sentence and/or the context in which it is spoken. Accordingly, they have to decide what tone is appropriate for each sentence. After completing the list, each pair will exchange their partners in a way that a new pair is formed. Now the partners of the new pair will share their answers with each other and will monitor whether they are able to differentiate the meaning of each sets of sentence as indicated in the parentheses.

List of sentences

1. (a) They're leaving. (a statement)
(b) They're leaving? (a request for confirmation)
(c) They're leaving . . . (. . . but they 'll be back.)
2. (a) Are you sure? (The speaker is questioning.)
(b) Are you sure? (The speaker is challenging.)
3. (a) I just found something. (What?)
(b) I said I just found something. (What? A little gold pin that was lying on the floor.)

4. (a) When are they leaving? (an ordinary question)
 (b) 'When are they leaving?' (a repeated question: 'Is that what you asked me?')
5. (a) This is my son, Henry. (Henry is the speaker's son.)
 (b) This is my son, Henry. (Henry is the person spoken to.)
6. (a) Is this your son, Henry? (same difference as above)
 (b) Is this your son, Henry?
7. (a) (Is today Tuesday?) Yes, it is.
 (b) (Oh, today's not Tuesday.) Yes, it is.
8. (a) I'll see you tomorrow, (a statement)
 (b) (I'll see you tomorrow. (a way of saying goodbye)
9. (a) (Is Pat speaking at the meeting or just attending?) Speaking.
 (b) (Voice on telephone: Is Pat there? Pat replies) Speaking.
10. (a) Good morning, Jack. (Brusque, businesslike)
 (b) Good morning, Jack. (Polite, friendly)
11. (a) Do you have a pencil or a pen? (Do you have something to write with?)
 (b) Do you have a pencil or a pen?
 (I know you have one of them. Which is it?)
12. (a) One. Two. Three. Four. Five.
 (The speaker is counting slowly, perhaps sighting objects one by one.)
 (b) One. Two. Three. Four. Five.
 (The speaker is counting dramatically, perhaps handling the objects one by one.)
 (c) One, two, three, four, five. (Normal, fairly rapid counting)

(Kreidler, 2004, p. 174)

5.9.3.2 Activity 2

Controversy in the school

Aim: This activity will enable the students to express their opinions on the basis of the information provided.

Organization: Students work in groups and then whole class works together.

Preparation: A handout is to be distributed in classroom. (Appendix H)

Procedure: Each student receives a handout. All the texts are read and language difficulties cleared up. Students are then divided into groups. One group prepares arguments the parents might put forward, another group thinks of the point of view of the pupils concerned. All in all there can be up to eight groups, dealing with the parents, teachers, principal (headmaster), pupils of different age groups, local press and school administration (local education authority). The groups arrange meetings, e.g. the parents want to talk to the headmaster, the local press, the local press interview teachers and pupils, etc.

The final step can be a panel discussion with a representative from each group on the panel.

(Friederike, 1984, p. 125-26)

5.9.3.3 Activity 3

Giving Opinion

Aim: This activity will enable students to discuss the conflicting opinions.

Organization: Whole class will be divided into two groups.

Preparation: A handout in which two conflicting opinions are written.

Procedure: Each group receives the handout and is given five minutes to share their opinions among themselves. Within the given time frame, they are asked to draw a

conclusion on those opinions. After five minutes, they are asked to share their views before the class.

Handout

Opinion 1: Children should be taught in heterogeneous classes: setting them into the ability grouping puts a 'failure' label onto members of the lower groups, whereas putting more and less able learners together encourages the slower one to progress faster, without penalizing the more able.

Opinion2: Children should be divided into ability groups for most subjects: this enables the less able ones to be taught at a pace suitable for them, while the better students do not need to wait for the slower ones to catch up. (Ur, 1991, p. 12)

5.9.3.4 Activity 4

Hidden Sentence

Aim: This activity will encourage students to start a free conversation.

Organization: Students would be working in teams.

Preparation: Cards with sentences (as many as there are students) and cards with some topic written over them.

Procedure: Two teams are to be formed. Two students from each team sit at the front of the class. Then each student chooses a sentence card but they do not show their card to each other or to their teams. After this, the teacher has to choose a topic card and announce the topic. Then the two students have to start the conversation with each other on the announced topic. The conversation has to be guided in a way that students can use the sentence on their cards in a proper context without anybody noticing it. Both teams listen attentively and try to guess the sentence on the card of the student from the other team. If they think they hear it, they say 'stop!' and repeat the sentence.

If they are correct they score a point. Each team is allowed to say 'stop!' twice during each round. The conversation has to continue for 5 minutes. For the next round, two new students from each team come and pick up the sentence card.

Scoring can be organized as follows:

- Guessing hidden sentences correctly- 1 point
- Use of hidden sentences by student without detection: 1 point
- Failure to use sentence: minus 1 point

Thus, it can be said that each team can get maximum two points in each round (if they detect the opponent's hidden sentence and if their own team member uses his sentence undetected).

Sentences for sentence card:

- I really think its old- fashioned to get married.
- But I like children.
- I've never been to Tokyo.
- My mother used to bake a cake every Sunday.
- The most dangerous thing you can do in rush hour traffic is ride a bike.
- Bus fares have gone up.
- Modern art is fascinating, I think.
- I hate spinach.

Topics for topic cards

- | | |
|---------------|---------------|
| • Pollution | • Travelling |
| • Watching TV | • Fashion |
| • Family life | • Keeping fit |

(Friederike, 1984, p. 38-9)

5.9.3.5 Activity 5

Keep Talking

Aim: This activity will prepare students for an impromptu.

Organization: Students will work individually.

Preparation: Slips of paper with both a sentence and a topic written on them.

Procedure: A student has to choose a slip of paper and has to talk for one minute about the topic, beginning with the sentence on the piece of paper.

Examples:

- Smoking: If a cigarette costs \$1 a lot of people.....
- Homesickness: When I was a little boy/girl....
- Pets: I used to have.../ I would like to have.....
- Parents: There are no certificates for good parents.
- Clothes: I like...
- Chewing gum: Animals don't chew chewing gum.

(Friederike, 1984, p.132-33)

5.10 Conclusion

Besides emphasizing the role of TBLT in communicative classrooms, this chapter has presented various definitions of task and its characteristics. It has also identified the importance of planning and gradation of tasks. Various components of a communicative task have been defined further in this chapter. Later in the chapter, an attempt has been made to propose activities (which are either adopted or adapted from certain sources) which can be used while teaching fluency to ESL learners at AMU. These activities are user friendly and have taken into account the needs of the learners analyzed through the survey. Moreover, the activities are divided into the categories of guided and free ones which are graded at the various levels (the beginner, the

intermediate and the advanced). Each activity suggested in this chapter has stated its own aim, preparation required, organization needed and procedure to be followed.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the topic under study. It also recommends certain changes to be brought about in teaching English and discusses the findings of the study and its implications in detail. The limitations of the study and possibilities for further research in the area are indicated. The chapter ends with concluding remarks on the utility of the present research.

6.2 Overview of the Study

As the title of the thesis suggests, the aim of this work is to teach oral fluency to undergraduate ESL students at AMU through an activity based approach. The motivation to take up this study has emerged from the researcher's personal observation that the above mentioned students have limited proficiency in their oral skills. Subsequently, a survey was carried out to find out the students' perception of their proficiency in all the four skills (LSRW), their opinion on the efficiency of compulsory English course to develop the four skills (LSRW), the sources of motivation for them, their anxiety level, the problems that they face while speaking English, the strategies they adopt when they sense communication breakdown and practices they follow to improve their English. The background information of the students (that formed the sample for the survey in this study) was also collected. It was done to find the possible link between the current status

of oral fluency and their background information. The findings of the survey justified the explicit teaching of oral fluency in academic settings that the present study puts forth.

The first chapter has discussed the aim and scope; method adopted and plan of the present study. The second chapter has presented the theoretical underpinnings of oral fluency and has given a brief review of literature available on the topic under study. The third chapter has sketched the research design and the methodology proposed to carry out the research. It has also given the interpretations of the findings obtained through the survey. Chapter four has introduced various strategies for teaching oral fluency based on the results of the survey. The strategies included teaching of phonetics and phonological processes, use of CLL and TPR teaching methods in the classroom, putting emphasis on the role of fillers, vocabulary, and formulaic expressions in oral communications and emphasizing the function of audience in fluency development programme. It is expected that these strategies will contribute a lot in the teaching of oral fluency in English. Besides discussing the theoretical aspects of task based language teaching, chapter five has suggested various guided and free activities (adopted or adapted from various sources on the basis of the findings) to be used for teaching fluency.

6.3 Findings of the Study

The findings of this research are discussed below:

- The significant issue observed by the present study was that students were instrumentally motivated to speak English and their anxiety was quite high in the classroom. However, integrative motivation should play a dominating role for those who want to acquire proficiency in the target language. They admitted that they have been learning English for a long time yet most of them said that

they feel less proficient in the speaking skill as compared to other skills. They believed that English plays crucial role in their academic life and thus most of them needed English just to fulfil their academic needs.

- Another problem stated by the students was related to pronunciation and vocabulary. Most of them accepted to have poor pronunciation; and another large group said that they could not retrieve words from their memory when needed.
- As per the results, the syllabus of Compulsory English course was least favoured by the informants for its contribution towards the enhancement of speaking skill.
- Another finding suggests that instead of using communication strategies, most of the informants preferred to remain silent when they encounter failure in communication.
- Very few respondents used English for the purpose of entertainment. They did not watch English programmes or listen to English channels much. Reading newspaper, magazines, short stories, novels and talking in English with teachers were quite prevalent among the respondents. It is good that they admitted to have reading habits. Vocabulary can be immensely improved by reading texts but watching and listening to English programmes are very important to improve fluency in English speech. Through this, they become aware of various communication strategies, meaningful non-verbal acts, various tones which imply different meanings, turn-taking norms, how to initiate and terminate a conversation, establishing and maintaining their roles in communication, etc. These factors cannot be adequately dealt in written scripts.

6.4 Limitations

Following are the limitations of this research:

1. Aligarh Muslim University has introduced English as a compulsory subject from primary to undergraduate level, but the present study is limited to undergraduate level only.
2. Although, the thesis has attempted to analyse the important factors that contribute towards the poor fluency of UG students at AMU, yet it cannot claim to have made an exhaustive discussion on all the relevant issues.
3. Useful strategies and activities in the light of the findings of the present study have been given but they focus the undergraduate students only.
- 4.

6.5 Implications of the Findings

The findings of the study have implications for students, teachers and the course designers which are given below.

Implication for teachers and course designers

- Smart classrooms should be introduced at AMU so that teaching can run smoothly with the help of technology.
- The syllabus for developing speaking should take into account the fact that students are made to speak in the class. They must become efficient enough to use English while talking to their peers, teachers and other social class. In short, they must be able to show their contribution in spoken discourse.
- Classroom teaching should engage students in activities in which they must think critically, negotiate for meanings and use the target language in meaningful contexts in new and complex ways.

- The curriculum should include testing of speaking besides the other skills because testing has positive wash back effect on learning. This fact is also evident from the finding that indicated that learners are well-versed in writing exams than using English for any other purpose.

Implications for learners

- Apart from linguistic competence, students should sharpen their strategic competence in order to be a fluent speaker of English.
- Students should try to speak English not only with their teachers but also with their friends, peer and other social class. This will maximize the exposure to the language which is quite important to develop fluency in the target skill.
- Besides good reading habits, students should try to learn English through audio and visual aids.
- They should develop the spirit of team work.

6.6 Suggestions for Future Research

The following are indicated as possible areas of research in teaching oral fluency in L2.

- A similar study can be taken up for the intermediate or the primary level students studying English at AMU.
- A comparative study of the teaching methodology and strategies employed in developing oral fluency of UG students at AMU and other coaching centres in Aligarh can be undertaken.
- A study can be taken up to compare and contrast the oral fluency of UG students at AMU and the private institutional body in Aligarh.

- Another study could be carried out in the area of developing oral fluency of UG AMU students by implementing activities that are graded at various levels in the classroom.

6.7 Summing Up

It can be said that the process of teaching fluency is quite different from the teaching of other skills of the language. Hence, a quite influential and motivating fluency-based oral courses need to be designed for large ESL classrooms because these classrooms need to be handled with a trained skill. For a fluency course to be successful, all the methodologies related to fluency development that have been discussed so far should be incorporated in the language teaching programme. The classroom teaching should be somewhat learner-centered where the learners get the liberty to use communicative tools and strategies and have the communicative language choice at their convenience. The teachers must help them with the sufficient language inputs needed for the speech-enhancing activities. They must be motivated enough to actively and productively use the language inside and outside the classroom. Hence the language teachers should master the strategies that help them to teach oral fluency effectively in academic settings. Low anxiety and high motivation are the key factors in language acquisition. Therefore, apart from imparting the importance of the elements of repetition, practice, participating in speaking activities, attention to temporal variables, interaction, using pair taping etc., the teachers also need to work towards reducing the anxiety levels among ESL students and motivating them to handle the language efficiently.

Appendix- A

Fill in the Blanks

In Britain, school is compulsory between the ages of five and sixteen. _____ary education continues until the age of eleven. Pupils wishing to enter university usually finish their _____ary education when they are eighteen. Other types of _____er education are available for those who want to learn a trade such as catering or specialize at an early stage. In recent years, the proportion of young people entering university has risen _____ally. The variety of degree _____ses on offer has also widened. It is now common for students entering fields such as nursing to be based at university.









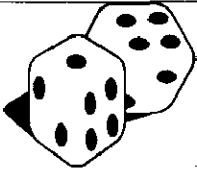


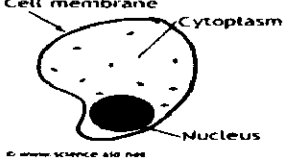












Educational terminology can be very confusing. For example, preparatory and public schools are fee-paying and both _____ng to the independent or private sector. Middle schools, which fall between primary and secondary education, are part of the state system, but do not exist in all parts of Britain. Most state secondary schools are "comprehensives" and are non-selective. However, in some towns, institutions known as grammar schools operate selectively. Children are tested at the age of eleven and the bright ones are creamed off. Many parents _____ue that grammar schools should be _____hed to allow equality of opportunity for all children. Others insist that a fast track is needed for gifted pupils and that diversity means more _____om of choice.

<http://www.tedpower.co.uk/discdut.html>

Appendix B

Homophones

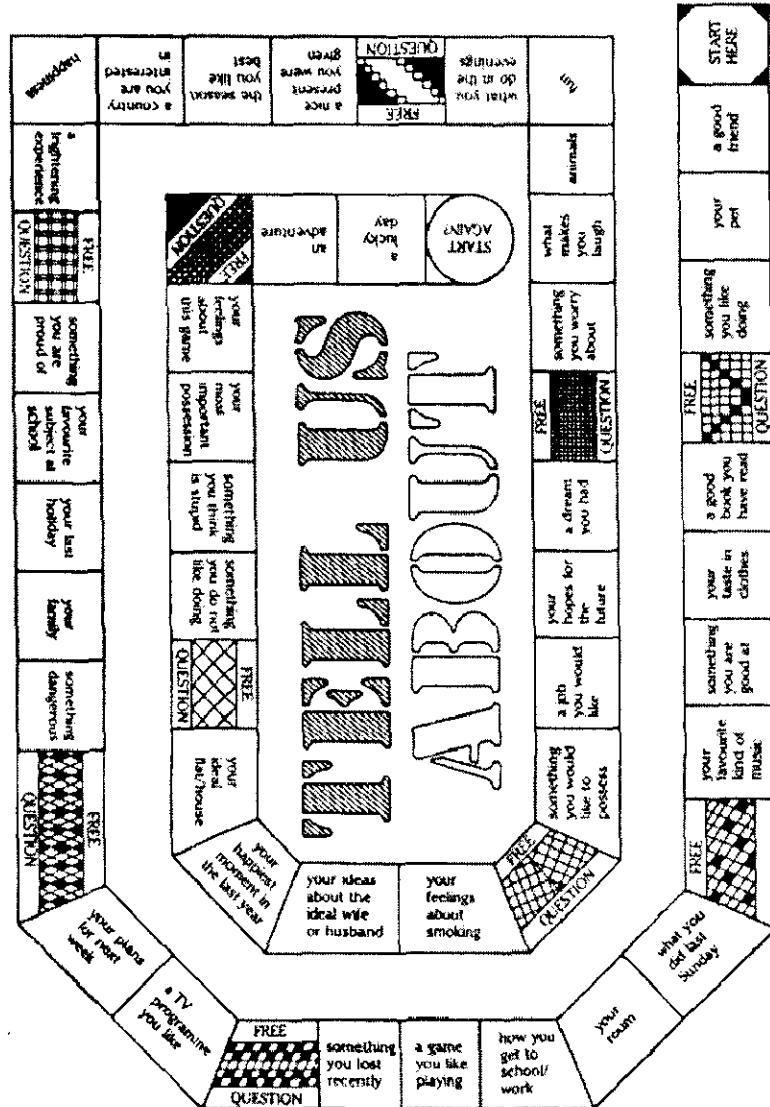
Pictures to be kept in envelopes:

		
Noun	Noun	Conjunction
		
Noun	Verb	Verb
		
Verb	Noun	Noun
		
Adjective	Noun	Noun
		
Conjunction	Noun	Noun
		
Verb	Noun	Verb
		
Adjective	Noun	Noun
		
Verb	Adjective	Verb

Appendix C

Value Topics

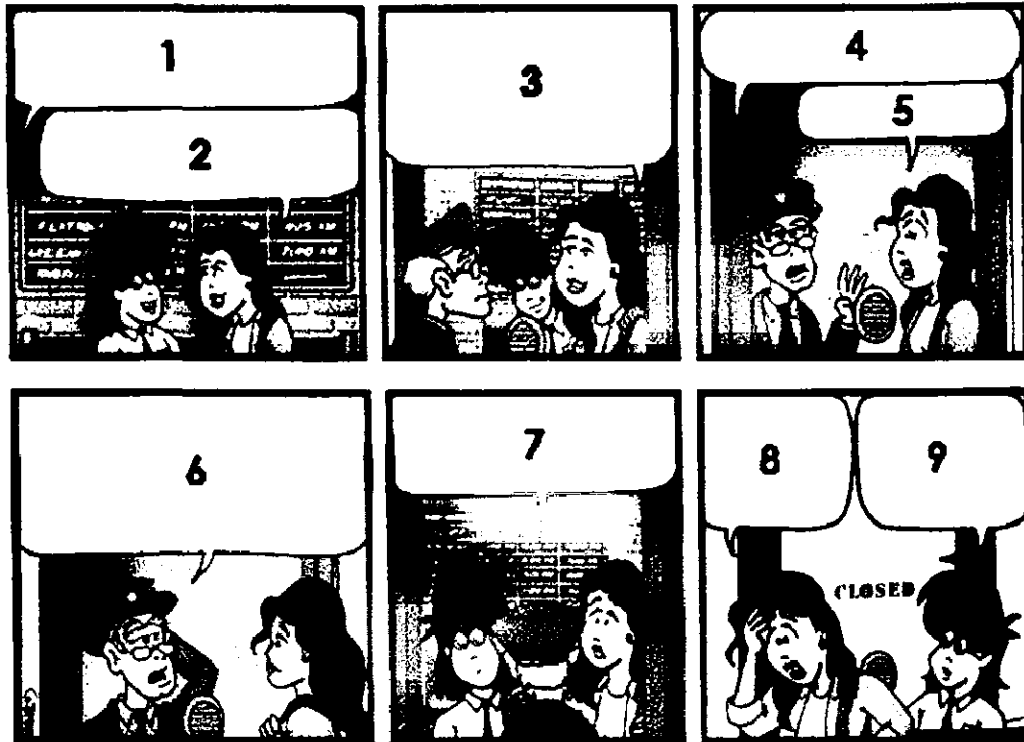
VALUES TOPICS



(Friederike, 1984, p.175)

Appendix D

Fill in the bubbles



Appendix E

Find the difference

Text-I

I think something I experienced in my early years of teaching may be a good example for such a classroom management problem. I was teaching English to fifth grade primary school students. The students had 12 hours of English a week, and they would start studying mathematics and science in English the following year. I was teaching a lesson on the types of animals, including mammals, reptiles, fish, birds, and arachnids. The names of these five animal types were written on the board, and I asked students to give examples for each type of animal for a review. After a couple of examples, one of the students stood up, came to the board, and wrote the name of one of the other students as an example for “reptiles.” The whole class went crazy; they were laughing and praising the boy for doing such a funny thing, while teasing the one whose name was on the board.

(Çopur, 2008, p.38)

Text-II

When I was a child, we used to live in the same building as my grandparents. My mother and my father were working for a bank, and my grandparents used to take care of me during the day. My uncle was my best friend, although he was 20 years older than I was. He would often take me wherever I wanted to go. We would play volleyball during the weekends, or he would watch cartoons on television with me. He travelled a lot to other countries because of his job. He usually brought some presents for me from the countries he visited. Once, he brought a huge doll from Belgium, and I loved it so much that I slept with her every night. My grandmother used to be a very fussy woman, so she became very angry when my uncle and I messed up the

house while playing. I remember how angry she was when she found out that we were trying to make a pool for my toys on the balcony by carrying water from the bathroom. She used to get furious when we played with water and actually, she was right, because everywhere would become wet, even the carpets and the furniture, while we were carrying the water. On the other hand, my grandfather was a relaxed and patient person, so he would watch and laugh at us at those times. Some days, my grandfather and my uncle would play backgammon. Both were good at it and it used to take many hours to have a winner. However, I could not see the end of their matches because I always fell asleep while watching them. Then, one day, my uncle got married and moved to live with his wife. It was not very easy for me to lose my best friend at home. No one was taking me to play volleyball or to the cinema. My grandmother was missing her son, and she did not get angry even when I tried to make a pool on the balcony again, as I had done with my uncle. My grandfather tried to teach me how to play backgammon, because he, too, had lost his partner.

(Çopur, 2008, p.37)

Text-III

The One That Got Away

When I was five years old, I took a boat out on river and went fishing by myself. I really wanted to catch a fish! But they were not biting. I stayed in my boat for three days, waiting. A couple of times, I thought I felt a fish nibbling on the bait at the end of the fishing line. The first time I pulled in my catch, it was not a fish; it was an old tire. The second time, it was a shoe. Finally, at the end of the third day, I felt a strong pull at the end of the line. The pull was so strong that my boat raced in a hundred circles, faster than you can say the word seafood. I needed all my strength just to hold

onto the fishing rod. I pulled, and I pulled, and I reeled in the biggest fish that ever swam on the Earth! It weighed more than everyone in this room put together! Then something terrible happened. After I had pulled the huge fish into my boat, I realized that we were sinking under its weight! Water was pouring into the boat from all sides! I am not a very good swimmer, so I was scared. Although it was the hardest decision I ever made, I had to let the fish go. I pushed it back over the side of the boat, and we waved good-bye to each other as it swam away. (Ryan, 2011, p.48)

Appendix F

An Argumentative Text

Single Parent Struggle

For many years, children growing up in a single parent family have been viewed as different. Being raised by only one parent seems impossible to many yet over the decades it has become more prevalent. In today's society many children have grown up to become emotionally stable and successful whether they had one or two parents to show them the rocky path that life bestows upon all human beings. The problem lies in the difference of children raised by single parents versus children raised by both a mother and a father. Does a child need both parents? Does a young boy need a father figure around? Does the government provide help for single parents? What role do step-parents and step-siblings play? With much speculation, this topic has become a very intriguing argument. What people must understand is that properly raising a child does not rely on the structure of a family but should be more focused on the process or values that are taught to these children as they learn to mature. Children of single parents can be just as progressive with emotional, social and behavioral skills as those with two parents.

People claim that the only way for children to gain full emotional and behavioural skills is to be raised by both a mother and a father. When a topic such as this one has a broad amount of variables it is impossible to simply link these problems to only having one parent. In the article, "Single-parent families cause juvenile crime", author Robert L. Maginnis states, "Children from single-parent families are more likely to have behaviour problems because they tend to lack economic security and adequate time with parents". The simple statement that raw criminals are products of single-

parent adolescence is absurd. What this writer must understand is that it can be extremely difficult for one parent to raise a child by themselves for many reasons. A single-parent must work full time to be able to afford to provide for themselves and their child. They must also be able to still have time to offer an exuberant amount of emotional time for the well being of their child. However, even though this may seem impossible, it can be done.

As this subject continues to be looked down on people must realize that single parents are becoming more common in today's world. Since 1995 the American family structure for children ages fourteen to eighteen consists of forty-two percent living in a first marriage family with both parents, twenty-two percent living in a second marriage step-family, twenty-one percent living in a single parent, divorced or separated family, six percent living in a single parent never married family and three percent living in a single parent widowed family. This is an extremely scary statistic considering that fifty eight percent of children in America are living in a single parent family. This is a chilling percentage because it shows how little faith is put into a relationship before actually deciding to have children. Unfortunately not all single-parents take the time to perform the vital tasks needed to raise their children. Parents who think they would never be able to provide emotional stability for their children by themselves should have taken the time to think this through before deciding to become parents. Accidents may happen once in a while but in most cases adults know what is at stake when planning to have a child. Plain and simple, if you're not ready, than don't do it. If you do decide to have this child and you love this child, then you can be a good parent. There are many ways to enhance the well being of your child if you simply apply yourselves as parents.

Magginnis later states that, "Boys who do not have fathers as male role models suffer especially". While it is extremely important for a male child to have his father around, there are other ways of teaching a young boy the lessons he needs to become a man. I know from personal experience that what the author of this article is trying to convey is wrong. I never had my father around while growing up and I did in fact have many positive male role models. My Grandfather was always there to help guide me as I slowly blossomed into a young man. Anytime my mother had to work to support us, my grandparents, aunt's, uncles and cousins would step up and provide the time and attention I needed. Therefore, I had the best support group I could have had as a young man. Being a child with a single mother had its benefits. Although I came to find how hard it really was for her to always meet the needs of her child, she did the best job that she possibly could and gave me the knowledge that I needed to become a successful man without the guidance of my father.

I did however have the experience of dealing with a step-parent. Today, twenty five percent of all American children will spend at least some time of their growing-up years in a stepfamily. This seems fine for single parents because they feel like they can start over in a new relationship and receive help from their spouse both emotionally and financially. A step-parent can cause confusion and emotional stress on the child since they have just had to adjust to only one parent and now have to adjust to a new parental figure stepping into the family role. Another factor of bringing a step-parent into a single family's life is new step-siblings to get along with. It might not be justified for a step parent to punish their step-child like they would their own flesh and blood. As long as both parents have an understanding that their family comes first and that it is important to communicate between themselves and with the children, a step-family could survive.

Children who are raised with both a mother and a father have more attention from both parents therefore they get the emotional time they need to progress in life. This could be true but not in all circumstances. It would not be beneficial at all to grow up in a two parent family who did nothing but argue and put each-other down. Naturally, a child who sees this from a very young age until they are ready to be out on their own would only follow in the footsteps of all that they have ever known. Children who are raised by one parent who devotes their time and emotion into their child would benefit much more than a child who has both parents showing them that fighting and arguing is acceptable.

Not all families are lucky enough to have a healthy structure. It is important for society and government aids to notice these structural differences and take action. There should be government funded programs to help assist single-parent families with childcare and finances for parents who must work and still have time for their children. Whether it's a mother and a father, a single mother, or a single father, children need guidance. They will only become a product of what they are taught from a young age and these children are deeply affected emotionally by the amount of love and compassion that is put into raising them. Whichever family structure is implied it must be one of respect and strong moral values that they can someday pass on to their family.

(Chris Polito, 2008, <http://www.mesacc.edu/~paoih30491/ArgumentEssay1.pdf>)

Appendix G

Cue Cards

Card 1

Remember

Memorize

Recall

Remind

Sentence: As the teacher entered the class, the studentshim of the class test. To this, the teacher replied that he could not.....that he had scheduled any test. As he was not prepared to take the test, he rescheduled it for the next class and advised the students thatanswers would not fetch them marks, therefore, they should try their best tothe classroom lectures when they are writing exams.

Card 2

Look

Peep

Glance

Stare

Sentence/Paragraph/ Dialogue: The invigilator at the boy who was peeping into his friend's copy. When the boy noticed the teacher, he began to here and there. The invigilator warned him that if he is caught again, he will snatch away the paper. The boy became nervous and said "Sir, I over his paper unintentionally. I am sorry!"

Card 3

Give
Grant
Confer
Bestow

Sentence/ Dialogue/ Paragraph: Many government bodies fellowships for the unprivileged so that they can pursue higher studies. Those availing the fellowships their best to their studies so that their University them with the degrees which they are aspiring. In long run, some of them are upon with a title or honour for remarkable contribution in their field

Card 4

Question
Interrogate
Enquire
Investigate

Sentence: After the accident, the police arrived at the spot and about the mishap. They the nearby shopkeepers. While they put up such that led them to conclude that it was due to careless driving.

Card 5

Wish

Say

Ask

Tell

Sentence/ Dialogue/ Paragraph:

Uncle to his niece Smita: your friends to John happy birthday and him whether he is throwing a party or not.

Anita: They will not ask him for the party because they he is a miser.

Card 6

Little

Small

Tiny

Minute

Sentence: A girl went near a plant in her garden. She got scared to see a creature that had pores on its body.

Card 7

Release
Discharge
Free
Liberate

Sentence:After spending 10 years of rigorous imprisonment, he was from the prison. He felt that his imprisonment him from all his guilt. He was happy to feel that now he can lead a life which is from remorse. He then decided that he will the duty of a responsible citizen.

Card 8

Argument
Discussion
Talk

Sentence/Paragraph/ Dialogue: Rita's father suggested that she should to her husband and should have some over the concerned matter patiently without indulging in any kind of He warned her that arguments may further worsen their relationship.

Card 9

Dispose

Throw

Discard

Sentence: batteries of cell phone should be
properly rather than them in the garbage.

Card 10

Beautiful

Charming

Pretty

Cute

Sentence: Though the woman sitting beside Rita is not that, she
is Her dress is very and her child is too

Appendix H

Controversy in the school

Controversy in the school

Dear Principal,

As part of our work in Modern Studies Renato Rango has been invited to come and talk to us tomorrow. He is an actor who is in a play at the Globe Theatre this week. He is a refugee from Chile, where he was tortured. Would you like us to bring him to meet you? If so could you suggest a time?

R. Barnett, G. Wright (Form 4 A)

Letting Us Down

We have said before, Alan, we have to say it again. This country is going from bad to worse. The crime rate is soaring. Terrorism is doing more shooting. Freedom is being taken away. The government is not as perfect. We have lost our influence in the world.

The teacher has many doubts. But one course is definitely our schools. Our schools are letting us down. The lack of discipline. The loss and empty methods. Work of all, the emphasis on Modern Studies, or whatever the latest jargon is.

But it is very important indeed that children should be made to learn the traditional school subjects. And they should be made to learn about the past. Particularly the part of classical history. Only then will they have the courage to face the present.

Dear Principal,

My child is in Form 4D, where they are doing some work called Modern Studies. I am rather worried about this. Surely the most important thing at school is to learn to pass exams, in order to get a good job in later life. But the pupils are not really learning anything useful in this Modern Studies work. I do not think it is going to help them pass their exams, and it seems to do nothing but confuse them. Can you reassure me?

Yours sincerely,

F. H. H. H.

MEMO

To: Deputy Principal
 From: Principal
 Re: Local press/modern studies

I enclose a cutting from today's local paper. Perhaps you have seen it? Sounds as if it's a direct reference to some of the Modern Studies work at this school. Ought we to reply? My own view is that indeed M.S. has little or no value, and is a cause of bad behaviour and lower standards. Is this a chance to put a brake on it, or stop it altogether?

Dear Principal,

Our work in Modern Studies is going very well. The students are getting a lot out of it. Some of them are keen to make two visits - one to a 'factory farm' about 20 kilometres away, to see how valuable proteins from third world countries is being used to fatten up cows and pigs. And the other to an experimental commune about 50 kilometres away which specialises in organic farming and low-impact technology. Could you please let me know whether funds are available for these two visits?

Yours, D. Karren.

F. H. H. H.

(Friederike, 1984, p. 186)

Appendix I

Questionnaire

This questionnaire consists of 20 questions divided into four sections. These questions are framed to know the respondents' general ability in spoken English, the problems they face while speaking the language and the communication strategies used by them to overcome those problems. A five-point rating scale is provided below each question. All respondents are requested to encircle the appropriate response of their choice on the scale given against each option of the questions.

Letter of consent (for questionnaire)

I _____ hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in a research project undertaken by Darakhshan Zafar as a part of her PhD program (ELT) in the department of English, Aligarh Muslim University. The nature of research has been explained to me clearly. I understand that the data obtained from me through the questionnaire will be used only for this project. It is also my understanding that my name would be kept anonymous in this research.

My signature: _____

Date: _____

Section- A

Name (optional):

Contact No.:

Contact address:

- 1) Age: Below 17 years 17-19 years 20-22 years Above 22 years
- 2) Origin: Rural Urban
- 3) Gender: Male Female
- 4) Mother tongue: Hindi Urdu Bengali Any Other
- 5) Which other language/s do you use? English Hindi Urdu Any Other
- 6) At what age did you start learning English?
Below 3 years 3-5 years 6-8 years 9-11 years 12 years & above
- 7) For how many years have you been learning English?
Below 3 years 3-5 years 6-8 years 9-11 years 12 years & above
- 8) Medium of instruction in-
 - a) Primary School English Hindi Urdu Bengali Any other
 - b) Middle School English Hindi Urdu Bengali Any other
 - c) At the intermediate level English Hindi Urdu Bengali Any other
- 9) Parent's qualification:
 - a) Father's Qualification:
Primary school/ High school/ Undergraduate/ Graduate Post Graduate
 - b) Mother's Qualification:
Primary school/ High school/ Undergraduate/ Graduate Post Graduate
- 10) How would you rate your ability in speaking English with ease?
Very Good/ Good/ Average/ Poor/ Very Poor

Section-B

11) How would you rate your ability in the following skills?

Very good	Good	Average	Poor	Very poor
5	4	3	2	1

a) Listening	5	4	3	2	1
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b) Speaking	5	4	3	2	1
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c) Reading	5	4	3	2	1
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d) Writing	5	4	3	2	1
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12) How helpful is the syllabus of Compulsory English course to develop the following skills in the language?

Very helpful	Quite helpful	Somewhat helpful	Hardly helpful	Not at all helpful
5	4	3	2	1

a) Listening	5	4	3	2	1
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b) Speaking	5	4	3	2	1
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c) Reading	5	4	3	2	1
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d) Writing	5	4	3	2	1
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13) How do you rate yourself in the following subskills?

	Very good 5	Good 4	Average 3	Poor 2	Very poor 1
a) Pronunciation	5	4	3	2	1
b) Vocabulary	5	4	3	2	1
c) Grammar	5	4	3	2	1

14) How good are you in using English for the following purposes?

	Very good 5	Good 4	Average 3	Poor 2	Very poor 1
a) For writing exams	5	4	3	2	1
b) For communicating with friends	5	4	3	2	1
c) For communicating with teachers	5	4	3	2	1
d) For getting job	5	4	3	2	1
e) For higher studies	5	4	3	2	1
f) For clarifying doubts in classroom	5	4	3	2	1

Section-C

15) How much do you agree that your desire for learning English is because of the following reasons?

	Strongly agree 5	Somewhat agree 4	Neutral 3	Somewhat disagree 2	Strongly disagree 1
a) To communicate with native speakers	5	4	3	2	1
b) To communicate with foreigners	5	4	3	2	1
c) To interact in English with friends	5	4	3	2	1
d) To speak English out of the campus also	5	4	3	2	1
e) To get a good job	5	4	3	2	1
f) To pass exams	5	4	3	2	1
g) For higher studies	5	4	3	2	1

16) How often do you get motivation from the following persons to speak English?

	Always 5	Often 4	Sometimes 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
a) Teachers	5	4	3	2	1
b) Classmates	5	4	3	2	1

c) Friends	5	4	3	2	1
d) Parents	5	4	3	2	1
e) Native speakers	5	4	3	2	1

Section-D

17) Given below are some statements. How far do you agree with each of them?

	Strongly agree 5	Somewhat agree 4	Neutral 3	Somewhat disagree 2	Strongly disagree 1
a) Avoid eye contact with the teacher for the fear of being asked to answer questions in English.	5	4	3	2	1
b) You do not raise your hand to answer even if you know it.	5	4	3	2	1
c) You do not speak because you feel embarrassed if you make mistakes.	5	4	3	2	1
d) While speaking English you feel so nervous that you forget the actual message to be conveyed.	5	4	3	2	1
e) Fear of being corrected or interrupted by the teacher.	5	4	3	2	1
f) You are not confident while speaking English.	5	4	3	2	1
g) Fear of being laughed at when you speak English.	5	4	3	2	1

18) How much do you agree with the fact that the following factors cause problems when you speak English?

	Strongly agree 5	Somewhat agree 4	Neutral 3	Somewhat disagree 2	Strongly disagree 1
a) Correcting errors in your speech while speaking.	5	4	3	2	1
b) Pausing a lot while speaking	5	4	3	2	1
c) Unable to use appropriate word(s) to convey your message because you do not know it/them.	5	4	3	2	1
d) Unable to use appropriate word(s) to convey your message even if you know it/them.	5	4	3	2	1
e) Unable to speak correct sentence(s) because your grammar is poor.	5	4	3	2	1

Section-E

19) Rate the frequency of using the following strategies when you do not get the exact word(s)/sentence(s) to convey your message.

	Frequently 5	Often 4	Sometimes 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
a) Repeat the word/sentence already said, several times	5	4	3	2	1
b) Use mother tongue equivalents for that word/sentence	5	4	3	2	1

c) Seek help from your listener to name that word	5	4	3	2	1
d) Move on by avoiding that word/sentence	5	4	3	2	1
e) Remain silent for a long time because you keep on thinking for that word/sentence.	5	4	3	2	1

20) How often do you practice the following habits to improve your speaking ability in English?

	Always 5	Often 4	Sometimes 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
a) Read English newspapers/magazines	5	4	3	2	1
b) Read English novels/short stories	5	4	3	2	1
c) Talk in English with friends	5	4	3	2	1
d) Talk in English with classmates	5	4	3	2	1
e) Talk in English with teachers	5	4	3	2	1
f) Listen to English news channels like BBC, etc.	5	4	3	2	1
g) Watch English programs	5	4	3	2	1

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